

PREDECISIONAL DRAFT

From Representation to Inclusion:

Diversity Leadership for the
21st-Century Military

Final Report of the
Military Leadership
Diversity Commission



PREDECISIONAL DRAFT

PREDECISIONAL DRAFT

From Representation to Inclusion: Diversity Leadership for the 21st-Century Military

LETTER

[Content to be drafted. This is a placeholder.]

PREFACE

The Armed Forces became a deliberately inclusive organization in 1948, when President Harry S. Truman issued his historic Executive Order 9981 that called for “equality of treatment and opportunity for all persons in the armed services.” Since then, the U.S. military has led the nation in its quest for equality for all Americans, regardless of their background. Its dedication to equal opportunity has resulted in increased representation of minorities and women among the top military leaders in recent decades. Despite undeniable successes, however, the Armed Forces have not yet succeeded in developing leaders who are as diverse as the nation they serve. Minorities and women still lag behind white men in terms of number of military leadership positions. Marked changes in the demographic makeup of the United States will throw existing disparities into sharp relief, creating a recruiting pool that looks very different from the pool of 30–40 years ago, from which today’s leaders were drawn.

Recognizing existing disparities and seeking to look ahead, Congress, in the National Defense Authorization Act for FY2009, Section 596, and in Public Law 110-417, mandated the creation of the Military Leadership Diversity Commission (MLDC). The Commission was tasked to “conduct a comprehensive evaluation and assessment of policies that provide opportunities for the promotion and advancement of minority members of the Armed Forces, including minority members who are senior officers.” Its charter required that a final report be delivered directly to the President and Congress one year after its first meeting.

An independent deliberative body of 32 members, the Commission was itself an inclusive organization whose members consisted of active-duty and retired officers and senior enlisted personnel from both the Active and Reserve Components of all the military Services, including the Coast Guard, as well as civilians. Civilian commissioners included senior executives of major corporations, civil servants, and a chancellor of a law school. Military commissioners included officers who served in major armed conflicts from World War II to Iraq and Afghanistan.

The Commission’s charter, listed 16 specific tasks. To address these tasks, the Commission divided into ten subcommittees, each supported by a research team. Each subcommittee produced issue papers on specific topics and a decision paper that reports the subcommittee’s findings, conclusions, and recommendations.

This report, founded on the investigations conducted for the subcommittees, presents the Commission’s main findings and recommends policies and practices to develop future military leaders who represent the face of America.

SUMMARY

This report presents the findings and recommendations of the Military Leadership Diversity Commission (MLDC). Under the provisions of the National Defense Authorization Act of 2009, Section 596, and Public Law 110-417, Congress asked the Commission to “conduct a comprehensive evaluation and assessment of policies that provide opportunities for the promotion and advancement of minority members of the Armed Forces, including minority members who are senior officers.” Congress charged the Commission to carry out 16 interrelated tasks. The nonpartisan, deliberative body of 32 military and civilian leaders researched, reflected on, and recommended improvements to diversity-related policies supportive of the missions and goals of the Department of Defense (DoD).

Unanimously, the Commission recognizes that the understanding of diversity must and can change throughout DoD. The Commission acknowledges that the Services have been leaders in providing opportunities for all servicemembers, regardless of their racial and ethnic background. Today’s effective multiethnic and multicultural force is a living testament to the success of military equal opportunity policies and related recruiting and management tactics.

The Commission is, however, asking for further change. The nation and its military currently face two challenges that need immediate response:

- *The racial, ethnic, and cultural makeup of the United States is changing.* Current projections suggest that minority populations of ages appropriate for military service will increase in the next century, while the non-Hispanic white population will decrease.
- *Skills critical to 21st-century mission success need to be identified and rewarded.* Leaders will need to address complex and uncertain emergent threats. The ability to work collaboratively with many stakeholders, including international partners, will be critical, requiring greater foreign language, regional, and cultural skills. U.S. military and civilian cyber systems are becoming more complex to defend and utilize, and enemy techniques blur the line between combat and noncombat situations on the ground.

The Commission’s recommendations support two overriding and related objectives: First, that the Armed Forces systematically develop a demographically diverse leadership that reflects the forces it leads and the public it serves. Second, that the Services pursue a broader diversity that includes the range of backgrounds, skill sets, and personal attributes that are necessary to enhancing military performance.

To achieve these objectives, the Commission proposes 20 recommendations to establish a definition of diversity that is appropriate for today’s challenges, to build a foundation for change by ensuring leadership commitment to diversity, to develop future leaders through strong implementation strategies, and to ensure continued progress through policy goals and metrics that allow DoD to manage and sustain diversity.

Define Diversity for a New Era

Currently, each Service defines *diversity* differently. Developing a uniform definition of diversity to be used throughout DoD can inspire the vision and elicit the needed changes. The Commission's recommended definition brings together DoD's core values and the core values of each Service and addresses today's unique mission and demographic challenges:

Diversity is all the different characteristics and attributes of individuals that are consistent with DoD core values, integral to overall readiness and mission accomplishment, and reflective of the nation we serve.

10 The definition acknowledges that individuals come to the military not only with different cultural backgrounds but also with different skills, experiences, and talents. It also acknowledges that these differences are operationally relevant. With proper leadership, diversity can increase military agility and responsiveness.

The definition is consistent with equal opportunity policies and practices. If policies resulting from the new definition are properly communicated, implemented, and assessed, the new concept will help to further eliminate discrimination.

Build the Foundation for Change

Leveraging diversity as a vital strategic military resource will require the commitment, vision, and know-how of leadership. Without this commitment to instill respect for diversity as a core value, the needed cultural change will not take place.

20 Ensuring Leadership Commitment to Diversity

Diversity leadership must become a core competency at all levels of the Armed Forces. An effective diversity leader promotes fairness and equity in his or her organization or workgroup and knows how to focus a broadly diverse group to use its members' differences in ways that benefit the mission. Getting this diverse group to work together in ways that improve mission capabilities is a learned skill. The Services should provide diversity leadership training, distinct from other forms of general diversity training, to servicemembers at every level.

30 This requires a fundamental shift in institutional thinking about diversity. One clear message comes from both the literature on diversity management and the experience of organizations with a strong reputation for diversity: Such a shift requires the personal and visible commitment of top leaders. The Secretary of Defense, Chairman of the Joint Chiefs, and Service Chiefs will be critical to implementing the kind of change needed to inspire and manage reform. To endure, the new understanding of diversity as a way to enhance mission effectiveness must become inherent in military culture and in the military's way of doing business.

Commitment to change is expressed fully by national leaders when new goals and values are made into law. Consistent with this insight, the Commission recommends that Congress revise Title 10, Section 113, to require the Secretary of Defense to report annually on the status and progress of DoD's diversity efforts.

Develop Future Leaders

The Commission found that top military leaders are neither representative of the population they serve nor the forces they lead. The extent to which women and racial and ethnic minorities are underrepresented varies across Services, but the Commission found, on average, low female and minority representation among senior military leaders.

During the Vietnam War, the lack of diversity in military leadership led to problems that threatened the integrity and performance of the nation's military (Becton et al., 2003). This is because servicemembers' vision of what is possible for their career is shaped by whether they see individuals with similar backgrounds excelling and being recognized in their Service. The performance of the nation's military is tied to the individual's belief that he or she will be recognized regardless of his or her background.

The Commission found three explanations for these discrepancies in representation among senior military leaders: low female and minority presence among initial accessions, lower retention of midlevel female servicemembers, and lower rates of advancement among minorities. To address these issues, the Commission recommends the following sets of policy changes.

Review Eligibility Requirements

Recent statistics from the Pentagon show that three out of four young people ages 17–24 are not eligible to join the military because they do not meet entry requirements related to education level, test scores, citizenship, health status, and criminal record. Racial and ethnic minorities are less likely to meet these eligibility requirements than are non-Hispanic whites, and that gap has been widening. Top officials, such as the President, Congress, and state and local leaders, can turn the tides by demonstrating a strong, united commitment to improving eligibility among the youth population. These officials, along with DoD, the Department of Homeland Security, the Services, and other stakeholders, such as the Department of Education, can and should improve educational and physical readiness among American youth and foster new interest in serving.

Improve Recruiting and Outreach Strategies

In the military's closed personnel systems, tomorrow's leaders are developed and selected from today's recruits. Recognizing this constraint, the Services employ a variety of strategies to attract qualified youth to Service academies, Reserve Officer Training Corps, and Officer Candidate School/Officer Training School programs. The Commission's review of recent accessions revealed that each Service had one or more minority groups that were underrepresented and that women were underrepresented across all Services. Exploring untapped recruiting markets in two-year colleges and requiring demographic accountability from precommissioning officer programs are just two of the steps that DoD and the Services can take toward expanding the pool of minority and female officer candidates.

Eliminate Barriers to Career Advancement

Increasing the racial, ethnic, and gender diversity of senior leadership requires eliminating barriers that disproportionately affect the advancement of women and minorities. This can be done on two levels. First, the Services should ensure that all servicemembers are equally well prepared to manage their own career progression. This includes educating them about the

promotion process and mentoring them, especially early in their careers, to recognize career-enhancing opportunities and make choices that further their personal goals.

Second, DoD and the Services must remove institutional barriers to open traditionally closed doors, especially those relating to assignments—both the initial career field assignment and subsequent assignments to key positions. An important step in this direction, recommended by the Commission, is to remove the restrictions that prevent women from engaging in direct ground combat.

Ensuring Continued Progress

10 The changes recommended by the Commission cannot be managed or sustained without developing a stronger organizational structure and a system of accountability, monitoring, and enforcement.

Realign the Organizational Structure

20 Currently, diversity management falls under the responsibility of Office of Equal Opportunity and Diversity Management. This agency is understaffed, isolated from top leadership, and unable to set the agenda or drive progress. The central feature of the new accountability system proposed by the Commission is the Chief Diversity Officer. This new position will report directly to the Secretary of Defense to ensure that diversity management is embraced as a “line” rather than “staff” responsibility. The second key feature of this system is a set of mutually reinforcing elements that work together to provide effective, consistent implementation and persistent accountability for achieving the goals of diversity and inclusion. Supported by the existing “Research and Analysis” office, which will be enhanced to deal with diversity-related issues, the Chief Diversity Officer will monitor all facets of the system for the Secretary of Defense.

Institute a System of Accountability

30 The Secretary of Defense will oversee the diversity effort of DoD and the Services through annual accountability reviews with the Service Secretaries, Chiefs, and senior enlisted leaders. In parallel, the Deputy Secretary of Defense will convene biannually the Deputy’s Advisory Working Group to discuss the status and progress of diversity efforts throughout the Armed Forces. Finally, to ensure consistent implementation of the new diversity vision, each of the Service Chiefs will hold internal accountability reviews prior to meeting with the Secretary of Defense. Reviews will be conversations that focus on progress and areas for improvement. They will enable military leadership not only to see evidence on demographics but also to take stock of the diversity awareness and leadership of those in line to succeed them. In particular, they will provide a forum for senior leaders to assess whether and how leaders at lower levels are leveraging all types of diversity in their units to improve capability.

Ensure the Succession of Leaders Committed to Diversity

To ensure that the diversity effort continues, demonstrated diversity leadership must be a criterion for nomination and confirmation to 3- and 4-star rank, within both DoD and in the Senate. Individuals considered for top leadership positions should be able to demonstrate their

experience in providing diversity leadership and their understanding of its connection to mission accomplishment.

Develop and Implement Robust Policies and Strategic Metrics

Successful implementation of diversity initiatives requires a deliberate strategy that ties the new diversity vision to desired outcomes via policies and metrics. DoD must revise and reissue existing equal opportunity policies, formalize the new diversity management goals in clear and robust policies, and clarify what the Services must do to meet those goals. At the same time, appropriate metrics and reporting tools must be put in place to ensure that progress is made. With such data and tools, military leaders at all levels can be held accountable for their performance for diversity management and rewarded for their efforts.

Conclusion

Today's military operations are executed in complex, uncertain, and rapidly changing environments. Men and women representative of the U.S. population and with different skills, experiences, and backgrounds are needed to respond to new and emerging threats. To harness these differences in ways that increase operational effectiveness, the military must revise and develop policies consistent with the new diversity vision. Diversity needs to work—for the good of the nation and the Armed Forces that serve it.

Joint operations, imposed by Congress on an unwilling military 25 years ago, have since become a large-scale example of the strength that comes with diversity. These operations do not level or eliminate each force's unique traditions and capabilities; each maintains its culture, heritage, and ways of engaging in battle and peacekeeping missions. Integrating the Service's differences into a single coordinated force is difficult, and the U.S. military has spent considerable time and treasure making it possible. Despite these challenges, however, joint operations have demonstrated that the seamless integration of differences can determine the outcome of the fight.

The ultimate impact of the recommendations in this report depends on the unwavering commitment of the President of the United States, the resolute conviction of the Secretary of Defense, and the concerted effort of military leaders at all levels to bring about enduring change. The MLDC is the third deliberative body established by an external authority to find ways to transform the U.S. military to become a more inclusive institution. Its predecessors were the Fahy Committee, created by President Harry S. Truman, and the Gesell Committee, appointed by President John F. Kennedy. Historians have hailed the Fahy Committee as instrumental in desegregating the Armed Forces and thus paving the way for the nation to move closer to its ideals. On the other hand, few even remember that the Gesell Committee existed, despite the fact that it recommended policies that might have enabled the military to avoid the harmful racial tensions and conflicts that occurred in the Armed Forces during the Vietnam War.

The U.S. military is a learning institution that can indeed change if the highest leaders of the nation provide a clear vision and sustained oversight. In fact, the Armed Forces have led the nation in the struggle to achieve equality. To maintain that leadership, they must evolve again, renew their commitment to equal opportunity for all, and embrace the broader concept of diversity needed to achieve their mission and to move the nation closer to embodying its ideals.

CONTENTS

| | |
|-----------------------|-----|
| Letter | i |
| Preface..... | ii |
| Summary | iii |
| Acknowledgements..... | x |
| Abbreviations..... | xi |

Section I: Introduction

CHAPTER ONE

| | |
|-----------------------|----|
| About the Study | 13 |
|-----------------------|----|

10 CHAPTER TWO

| | |
|---------------------------------------|----|
| Defining Diversity for a New Era..... | 20 |
|---------------------------------------|----|

Section II: Building the Foundation for Change

CHAPTER THREE

| | |
|---|----|
| Ensuring Leadership Commitment to Diversity | 29 |
|---|----|

Section III: Developing Future Leaders

CHAPTER FOUR

| | |
|---|----|
| Demographic Composition of Today's Military Leadership..... | 44 |
|---|----|

CHAPTER FIVE

| | |
|---------------------------------------|----|
| The Eligible Pool of Candidates | 51 |
|---------------------------------------|----|

20 CHAPTER SIX

| | |
|-------------------------------|----|
| Outreach and Recruiting | 58 |
|-------------------------------|----|

CHAPTER SEVEN

| | |
|---------------------------------|----|
| Branching and Assignments | 66 |
|---------------------------------|----|

CHAPTER EIGHT

| | |
|----------------|----|
| Promotion..... | 77 |
|----------------|----|

CHAPTER NINE

| | |
|-----------------|----|
| Retention | 84 |
|-----------------|----|

CHAPTER TEN

| | |
|--|----|
| Going Beyond Race, Ethnicity, and Gender | 89 |
|--|----|

30

Section IV: Ensuring Continued Progress

CHAPTER ELEVEN
Managing and Sustaining Diversity 93

CHAPTER TWELVE
Conclusion 114

Appendix A. The Military Leadership Diversity Commission Charter..... 116
Appendix B. Commission Members..... 117
10 Appendix C. Recommendations 118

Glossary 124

References..... 125

PREDECISIONAL DRAFT

From Representation to Inclusion: Diversity Leadership for the 21st-Century Military

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

[Content to be drafted. This is a placeholder.]

PREDECISIONAL DRAFT

From Representation to Inclusion: Diversity Leadership for the 21st-Century Military

ABBREVIATIONS

[Content to be drafted. This is a placeholder.]

Section I: Introduction

Chapter One ABOUT THE STUDY

The Armed Forces have played a pivotal role in the nation’s pursuit of equality of opportunity for all Americans. In 1948, right after the end of World War II, Commander in Chief of the Armed Forces President Harry S. Truman issued his historic Executive Order 9981 calling for the desegregation of the Armed Forces by providing “equality of treatment and opportunity for all persons in the armed services.” Since then, U.S. military forces have become exemplary institutions dedicated to the ideal that individual servicemembers should be rewarded for their performance and dedication, no matter what their gender, skin color, ethnic background, or religion. This dedication to equal opportunity has resulted in increased representation of minorities and women at all ranks of the military, including its top leaders. Today, the Armed Forces have made impressive progress toward President Truman’s vision of an inclusive military that reflects the ideals of the nation it serves.

Despite this record of success, however, the transformation of the Armed Forces remains unfinished. Women and minorities are still underrepresented in leadership positions. Demographic changes in the United States are reshaping the pool from which the Armed Forces may enlist and promote future military leaders. Prolonged conflicts of unprecedented complexity require agile leadership that leverages all the capabilities at its disposal. Like the private sector, the U.S. military recognizes the need for a diverse workforce that includes a greater range of individual competencies, including skills, education, and professional backgrounds. Recognizing the needs of the new era, Congress mandated the creation of the Department of Defense (DoD) Military Leadership Diversity Commission (MLDC).

The Commission, an advisory body of 32 active and retired military, academic, and corporate leaders, was tasked in its charter to “conduct a comprehensive evaluation and assessment of policies that provide opportunities for the promotion and advancement of minority members of the Armed Forces, including minority members who are senior officers.”¹ This final report presents the results of that evaluation. It examines the policies affecting the career life cycles of military personnel from the five forces—the Army, the Navy, the Air Force, the Marine Corps, and the Coast Guard—as well as the National Guard and Reserve, and it outlines a vision, strategy, and action plan for improving the inclusiveness of military leadership.

Background

The MLDC is the third deliberative body established by an external authority to find ways to transform the U.S. military to become a more inclusive institution. As this Commission offers its report to the President of the United States and Congress, the nation’s top military leaders, and the American public, it is worth reflecting on the lessons learned from the two previous committees.

¹ The charter is reproduced in Appendix A. The commission members are listed in Appendix B.

The Fahy Committee

When President Truman declared that widespread racial and ethnic discrimination would be abolished in the Armed Forces, he declared that the new policy was to be “put into effect as rapidly as possible, having due regard to the time required to effectuate any necessary changes without impairing efficiency or morale” (The White House, 1948). He assigned responsibility for ensuring rapid implementation to the newly formed President’s Committee on Equality of Treatment and Opportunity, known as the Fahy Committee (after its chair). The order stated, “The Committee is authorized on behalf of the President to examine into the rules, procedures and practices of the armed services in order to determine in what respect such rules, procedures and practices may be altered or improved with a view to carrying out the policy of this order” (The White House, 1948).

From January 1949 to July 1950, the Fahy Committee, which comprised three white and two black civilians, “advised, encouraged, and prodded each of the armed services into at least nominal compliance with the administration’s expectations regarding Executive Order 9981” (Mershon & Schlossman, 1998, p. 187). Although the committee had no formal administrative power, President Truman made it clear to all stakeholders that he stood behind its effort. In January 1949, at the first meeting of the committee, he said, “I want this job done. And I want to get it done in a way so everybody will be happy to cooperate to get it done. Unless it is necessary to knock somebody’s ears down, I don’t want to do that, but if it becomes necessary, it can be done. But that’s about all I have to tell you” (Mershon & Schlossman, 1998, p. 190).

The direct support it received from the President sets the Fahy Committee apart from all other such deliberative bodies. With the President’s unequivocal support, the Fahy Committee brought about lasting changes to the U.S. military that went beyond desegregation of the armed services. For instance, the Fahy Committee’s systematic analysis exposed some long-held beliefs about inclusive policies toward minorities in the Armed Forces and their impact on mission effectiveness. The Fahy Committee’s findings also debunked an assertion that any inclusive policy to expand opportunities for blacks must come at the expense of other people and the expense of the general welfare. More importantly, the findings showed that a more inclusive military that enables all members to use their talents and skills to the fullest is a more effective fighting force.

The Gesell Committee

Despite this progress, however, desegregation of the military in the following years was neither smooth nor consistent. Official racial segregation in the military was not fully revoked until 1954, four years after President Truman dismissed the committee in a compromise with Secretary of Defense Louis A. Johnson (Mershon & Schlossman, 1998, pp. 218, 312–313). The momentum to desegregate was sustained during the Korean War and brought to completion by military leaders in the theater, such as General Matthew B. Ridgeway (Mershon & Schlossman, 1998, pp. 228–320). But this momentum was difficult to sustain after the war, particularly because the U.S. military was ahead of the nation in terms of race relations in the late 1950s (Mershon & Schlossman, 1998, p. 252).

In recognition of the need to revitalize efforts to expand opportunities for minorities in the military, President John F. Kennedy established a new investigative body in 1962, called the President’s Committee on Equality of Opportunity in the Armed Forces, commonly known as the

Gesell Committee (after its chair). All seven members were civilians, and three were black (Mershon & Schlossman, 1998, p. 288). They were asked to assess the status of blacks in the military and find ways to improve their opportunities. More specifically, they addressed two questions:

- What measures should be taken to improve the effectiveness of current policies and procedures in the Armed Forces with regard to equality of treatment and opportunity for persons in the Armed Forces?
- What measures should be employed to improve equality of opportunity for members of the Armed Forces and their dependents in the civilian community, particularly with respect to housing, education, transportation, recreational facilities, community events, programs, and activities?

The Gesell Committee's report, released in 1964, called for "far-reaching proposals for greater institutionalization of the military's commitment to equality of treatment and opportunity." The Gesell Committee considered military commanders to be the central agents in this process. For instance, it proposed that "the DoD establish a system for monitoring race relations. . . . Under this system, commanders would be held responsible for ensuring that race relations received continuous attention, and would be evaluated on their handling of racial matters." More important, Gesell Committee "insisted that the results of such evaluations be incorporated into the regular promotion process," writing the following: "It should be made clear [that] officers showing initiative and achievement in this area will enhance their performance ratings and obtain favorable consideration for promotion and career advancement" (all from Mershon & Schlossman, 1998).

Unlike the Fahy Committee, the Gesell Committee did not directly report to the President. Moreover, whereas the Fahy Committee was asked to implement a policy of the President, the Gesell Committee was asked to recommend new policies to the Secretary of Defense. The Gesell Committee released its final report in 1964. The committee's recommendations to institutionalize the inclusive ideals in the U.S. military are still relevant today, especially since they were never fully implemented.

Unfortunately, Secretary of Defense Robert McNamara chose not to implement all of the Gesell Committee's recommendations. Instead, he issued DoD Directive 5120.36, which addressed the recommendations for the second question—but not the first—and dealt with external issues to address how DoD should deal with the fact that many institutions in the country remained racially segregated while the military had already ended segregation (Mershon & Schlossman, 1998, p. 294).

Unlike the Fahey Commission, which is recognized for its historic achievements, the Gesell Committee is little known. Its recommendations, if implemented, would have institutionalized the process of monitoring and evaluating progress in racial relations and equal opportunity within the military and the accountability system. However, Secretary McNamara failed to implement the recommendations that might have enabled the Armed Forces to avoid the harmful racial tensions and conflicts that occurred in the decades that followed.

The failure of DoD to implement the Gesell Committee's recommendations had high costs. Inequities persisted at all levels of the military, particularly in leadership ranks. The negative effects of such inequities were detailed in the 2003 amicus brief submitted to the Supreme Court in the case of *Gratz v. Bollinger* and *Grutter v. Bollinger*, which addressed whether the treatment

of race as a favorable factor in admissions decisions at the University of Michigan Law School was constitutional. The brief—filed by 29 former military and civilian leaders, including several retired four-star generals, chairmen of the Joint Chiefs of Staff, and Secretaries of Defense—recounted that the lack of diversity in military leadership led to problems that threatened the integrity and performance of the nation’s military: “[T]he armed forces suffered increased racial polarization, pervasive disciplinary problems, and racially motivated incidents in Vietnam and on posts around the world” because the percentage of minority officers was “extremely low” relative to the percentage of blacks among the enlisted ranks (Becton et al., 2003).

The Military Diversity Leadership Commission

10 The MLDC is building on the legacy of the two previous commissions in the hope that its recommendations will be embraced by the nation’s political and military leaders so that a new commission on this subject will not be needed in the years ahead. It tackles the same issues as its predecessor commissions, with a focus on military leadership. It also addresses two important trends of the past decade that may become more pronounced in the future: the growing demographic diversity of the American population and the sophisticated challenges of current warfare that require a broader set of qualifications in its leaders. Congress asked the Commission to reconsider the concept of diversity with these trends in mind.

The Commission recommends an expanded definition of diversity and a modern, systematic approach to diversity management in DoD. The new definition goes beyond the traditional
20 concept of diversity by shifting its focus away from eliminating discrimination against members of certain groups and toward valuing and leveraging all kinds of human differences, including demographic differences, to improve capability and readiness. The Commission believes that institutionalizing this broader concept of diversity will ensure that the U.S. military will develop officers who are not only demographically diverse but who that have the background and skills most needed to enhance military performance.

Approach and Scope

Congress specified 16 specific tasks for the Commission in the National Defense Authorization Act for FY2009. After careful review, the Commission grouped these tasks into ten substantive categories. The first four were based on the military leadership career life cycle. The remaining
30 categories were designed to cover topics critical to defining and managing diversity, tracking the progress of change, and ensuring that recommendations and affiliated policy changes were made in full accordance with U.S. law. In 2010, the National Defense Authorization Act for FY2010 expanded the mission of the MLDC to include the National Guard and Reserve Component. Six new commissioners were added to the MLDC in order to fulfill this new mandate.

The following subcommittees were formed to address the ten substantive categories:

- Definition of Diversity
- Legal Implications
- Outreach and Recruiting
- Leadership and Training
- 40 • Branching and Assignments
- Promotion

- Retention
- Implementation and Accountability
- Metrics
- National Guard and Reserve.

These subcommittees acquired pertinent information from the Services, including their definitions of diversity, ongoing initiatives, personnel data, outreach and recruiting strategies, retention efforts, promotion processes, and career development programs. They also received material on diversity management from the Office of the Secretary of Defense (OSD) and the Department of Homeland Security (DHS).

10 The Commission also gathered information through focus groups with servicemembers, informational interviews with key stakeholders, and monthly public meetings that featured presentations from military leaders from all the Services and DoD. Representatives of the diversity offices of the five Services and OSD presented demographic data and briefings on their current policies and practices. The Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff and each of the five Service chiefs spoke to the commission as well, providing their perspectives on diversity. Additional speakers included the Honorable Colin Powell, the Honorable Eric Shinseki, and the Honorable Claiborne Haughton. Diversity experts from private industry and academia addressed the Commission and answered questions about their approaches to diversity management. Finally, a panel of combat veterans addressed the Commission on issues surrounding women
20 serving in combat.

With this information, the Commission and its staff conducted extensive investigation into the demographic profile of the Armed Forces today; the ways in which the Services recruit, sort, train, assign, promote, and retain their people; the future missions the forces will likely face; current diversity policies and plans; and diversity best practices in the private sector. During this process, the Commission realized that it needed to give careful consideration to the evolving concept of diversity, which is moving beyond differences in race, ethnicity, religion, and gender to include a broader set of factors needed to create an inclusive workforce.

Based on the information collected, each subcommittee released a series of issue papers providing substantive background unique to the topic. Each subcommittee also developed a
30 decision paper that reports both the subcommittee's main findings and the commission-approved, topic-specific recommendations that resulted from the Commissioners' understanding and interpretation of the findings.

Recommendations

The final step of the process was to develop specific recommendations for improving the diversity of military leadership. The Commission determined that these recommendations should serve three interrelated goals:

- Establish the foundation for effective diversity leadership with a definition of diversity that is congruent with DoD's core values and vision of its future
- Develop future leaders who represent the face of America and are able to effectively
40 lead a diverse workforce to maximize mission effectiveness
- Implement policies and practices that will make leaders accountable for instilling diversity leadership as a core competency of the Armed Forces.

Each of the final recommendations was also required to meet several criteria defined by the Commission: It need to fill the Commission's charter, be supported by empirical evidence, be strategic rather than tactical, be feasible for implementation, meet legal requirements, and have a quantifiable intent. Commissioners evaluated recommendations based on how closely they adhered to these criteria. Recommendations that did not meet the criteria were modified or eliminated. If Commissioners in attendance did not approve the recommendations unanimously, the Commission deliberated until a consensus was reached. All final recommendations were approved by the conclusion of the final meeting in August 2010.²

10 Two important topics relating to diversity were outside the scope of the Commission's work. First, the Commission did not study the civilian workforce and its top leadership. This omission should not imply that diversity of the civilian workforce is not important for DoD. On the contrary, a diverse civilian workforce is critical to the 21st-century military because this group is an essential element of the total force. But, because the civilian workforce is managed differently than the military workforce, to fully address the issues and challenges associated with improving the diversity of the civilian workforce requires a separate study.

Second, the Commission did not address issues related to the military service of openly gay men and women. Although the "Don't Ask, Don't Tell" policy certainly pertains to diversity and diversity leadership, a comprehensive examination of the issue is beyond the scope of the Commission. Two other efforts have addressed that issue in detail.³

20 **Organization of This Report**

This report is divided into four sections. Section I, Introduction, introduces this study and, in Chapter Two, defines diversity for DoD. This definition incorporates but goes beyond equal opportunity to include a broader range of diversity factors, with important implications for the Armed Forces core values, core competencies, training, and leadership skills.

30 Section II, Building the Foundation for Change, articulates the Commission's belief that leveraging diversity as a vital strategic military resource will require the commitment, vision, and know-how of leadership. In Chapter Three, the Commission presents its most far-reaching recommendations: Those related to ensuring leadership commitment to diversity. Without this commitment to instill respect for diversity as a core value, the needed cultural change will not take place.

Section III, Developing Future Leaders, describes recommendations that focus primarily on increasing racial, ethnic, and gender representation within military leadership:

- Chapter Four offers an overview of the demographic composition of current military leadership, documenting that military officers today are less demographically diverse than both the enlisted troops they lead and the broader civilian population they serve.

² The recommendations are presented in full in Appendix C.

³ DoD General Counsel Jeh Johnson and Army General Carter Ham led DoD's comprehensive review of the policy and of how the U.S. military must prepare for and implement any associated changes in the law (see Johnson, Ham, et al., 2010). In response to congressional tasking, the RAND Corporation recently published an update of its 1993 report on sexual orientation and U.S. military personnel policy (see National Defense Research Institute, 2010).

- 10
- Chapter Five discusses how eligibility requirements both define the eligible population from which the Services can recruit and affect the demographic profile of eligible recruits.
 - Chapter Six describes current outreach and recruiting practices across the Services, reports on the demographic composition of recent accessions, and recommends policies to improve recruiting of racial and ethnic minorities and women.
 - Chapter Seven describes how policy changes can remove structural and perceptual barriers that create potential demographic differences in career field preferences and command assignment opportunities—which, in turn, influence the future demographic diversity of senior military leadership.
 - Chapter Eight discusses how potential barriers to promotion and resulting demographic differences in promotion rates can affect the future demographic diversity of senior military leadership.
 - Chapter Nine examines whether there are demographic differences in who chooses to remain in and who chooses to separate from military service and identifies barriers that may influence demographic differences in retention.
 - In Chapter Ten, the Commission recommends tracking and improving other aspects of diversity within the military.

20 Section IV, Ensuring Continued Progress, describes how to manage and sustain the changes proposed in the earlier sections. Chapter Eleven proposes recommendations related to developing a stronger organizational structure and a system of accountability, monitoring, and enforcement to ensure continued progress toward greater diversity at all ranks of the military. Chapter Twelve advises that the ultimate impact of the recommendations in this report will depend on the unwavering commitment of the Commander in Chief (the President of the United States) and the resolute conviction of the Secretary of Defense.

Chapter Two DEFINING DIVERSITY FOR A NEW ERA

The word *diversity* provokes mixed reactions from Americans. For some, especially those who grew up before and during the civil rights movement, the word conjures up the fight against racial segregation and inequality. For these Americans, diversity policies and programs are another name for equal opportunity (EO), most notably affirmative action programs. But for other Americans, especially the young who have grown up under the protection of laws and regulations that provide equal opportunity for all, diversity means something broader. It goes beyond differences among demographic groups and requires more than affirmative action.

10 The military Services—the Air Force, the Army, the Navy, the Marine Corps, and the Coast Guard—and the Department of Defense (DoD) have all developed their own definitions, which vary widely in length and specificity and are not consistent with one another (see Issue Paper #20; Lim et al., 2008). One of the first tasks the Commission tackled was to develop a uniform definition of diversity that could be used by all the Services and DoD. Without a common definition, the Services could not aspire toward a single goal: to harness the dynamic potential of the nation’s all-volunteer forces in ways that enhance military performance.

20 Congress asked the Commission to define diversity in a way that is congruent with the core values of DoD and the vision of the department for the future workforce. The Commission investigated existing definitions with these considerations in mind. DoD’s core values are “leadership, professionalism, and technical know-how,” which are upheld through the core values that everyone in uniform must live by: “duty, integrity, ethics, honor, courage, and loyalty” (U.S. Department of Defense, undated). Each Service has established its own core values as well, and these too were taken into consideration.

The Commission also examined DoD’s vision of its future workforce and the factors that will affect its composition. Research on this subject confirms the importance of embracing a definition of diversity that goes beyond the concept of equal opportunity for all. The future workforce will be made up not only of men and women of different racial and ethnic backgrounds and different religious views but also of people with different talents, work backgrounds, and skill sets.

30 The Commission recognizes that the nation is facing enemies that attack in nontraditional ways and must be countered with a wider range of capabilities. The nation’s warfighting forces must be willing and able to benefit from the talent of all individuals who are prepared to offer their unique skills, perspectives, and background in the service of their country.

With this in mind, the Commission developed a new definition of diversity.

The Department of Defense Should Adopt a New Definition of Diversity

Recommendation 1—

DoD shall adopt the following definition: Diversity is all the different characteristics and attributes of individuals that are consistent with Department of Defense core values, integral to overall readiness and mission accomplishment, and reflective of the nation we serve.

40

The definition of diversity recommended by the Commission has evolved from the concept of diversity that has motivated the Services for decades. That concept is associated with equal employment opportunity (EEO) laws, initiatives, and programs that make it illegal to discriminate against the hiring or promotion of an individual on the basis of race, color, religion, sex, or other characteristics of the individual or physical appearance. These laws have been put in place to avoid a continuation of the historic discrimination and mistreatment experienced by certain groups.

After the Vietnam War, which highlighted great disparities between the percentage of minority officers and minority enlisted personnel that resulted in racial polarization and harassment, the Services dedicated themselves to the goal of improving the fairness of their personnel practices, including recruitment, career opportunities, and promotion. They turned to civilian equal employment opportunity laws and applied them to the military sector.⁴ They embraced the guiding principle of EO, which declared that all individuals will have a chance to pursue the same opportunities and will not be discriminated against or harassed in their pursuit of a career or position (U.S. Equal Opportunity Employment Commission, undated). They implemented affirmative action policies that extended beyond EEO laws because they entailed actively reaching out to individuals from underrepresented groups or groups that have been historically left out of the organization.

Because of the success of affirmative action in the military, it is easy to forget just how segregated the officer corps once was. In 1968, African-American enrollment at West Point and Annapolis was less than 1 percent; as late as 1973, just 2.8 percent of all military officers were African-American. By contrast, during that period, African-Americans constituted as much as 17 percent of the rank and file. In Vietnam, the consequences of this de facto segregation were devastating.

—Jerome Karabel, “Race and National Security,” 2003

These efforts, sustained over decades, have made the U.S. military an exemplary institution in advancing the democratic equality of its workforce. The Services have pioneered outreach and recruiting strategies, management tools, and minority representation goals arising from EO and affirmative action programs. Military men and women of different racial and ethnic backgrounds have learned to work together as a team to protect the nation. Individuals expect to be promoted not on the basis of their backgrounds or heritage but on the basis of the Services’ standards of excellence and performance.

Building on this foundation, the Commission’s concept of diversity incorporates these goals and adds others.

Moving Forward: From Representation to Inclusion

The new definition of diversity is based on a model of diversity management that incorporates the best ideals of EO and affirmative action with the practice of casting a wide net to recruit, train, foster, and promote people with a diversity of characteristics and attributes that can benefit the Services. The new definition aims to give all servicemembers equal treatment at every step in

⁴ Military equal opportunity regulations are separate from EEO. The latter is the suite of laws and regulations that apply to the civilian workforce.

their military careers, but it also goes further: The words “all the different characteristics and attributes of individuals” refer not only to characteristics and attributes legally protected by equal opportunity laws but to *any and all* characteristics and attributes that can benefit the Services, including thinking style, occupational background, skill sets, and national affiliation. In other words, diversity, as understood by the Commission, includes characteristics and attributes both included and not included in EO law because any type of difference can affect mission effectiveness.

10 The Commission has heard concerns that diversity, when defined broadly in this way, will turn attention away from historically underrepresented groups in military leadership positions. In other words, some critics believe that to define diversity in ways that go beyond race, ethnicity, gender is to define away the very real challenges that specific groups still face.

The Commission recognizes this concern but believes that establishing a broad understanding of diversity throughout DoD will not harm the representation of minority populations. In fact, understanding diversity more broadly can help to build the representation of those populations in military leadership because minority populations have always offered the skills and talents that military leadership requires.

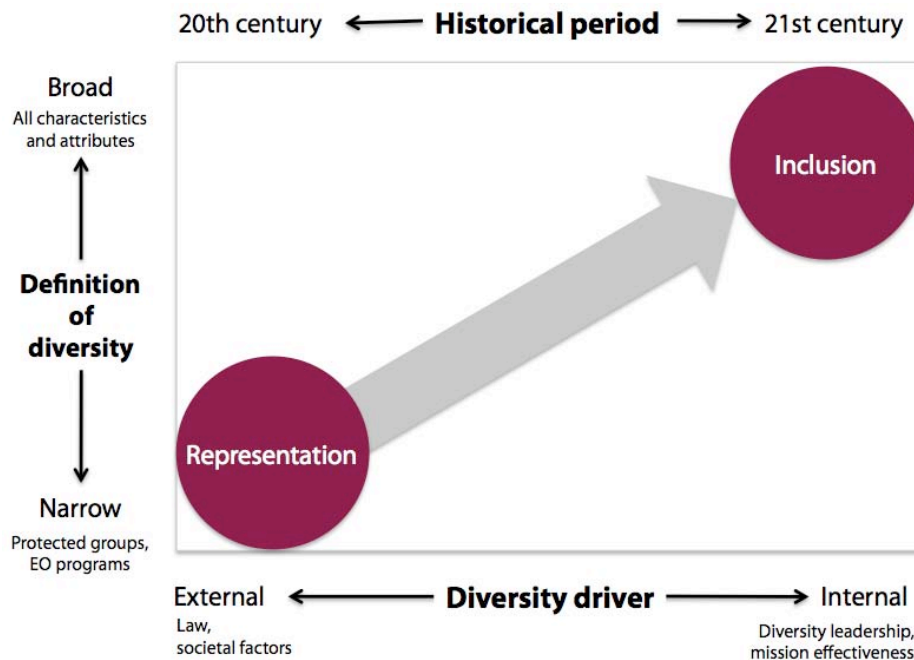
Furthermore, the broad definition of diversity reflects the realities faced by today’s military. Just as changes in the demographic mix of the nation’s population are increasing the demographic diversity of new accessions, changes in the budgetary and conflict environments are calling for new skills, more integration across military components, better coordination with other government agencies, and smoother cooperation with global partners.

50 Figure 2.1 illustrates the progression from the EO model of diversity used in the past to the broader concept of inclusion proposed for the future. The concept of EO relies on compliance with regulations to eliminate discrimination; the concept of diversity as inclusion values individual differences *because they are critical to the new approaches and practices needed for a successful fighting force*. This concept is consistent with equal opportunity policies and practices because it is based on the fair and equitable treatment of all personnel, regardless of their membership in a protected class.

[S]ome of these [diversity] consultants . . . would encourage you to sweep these directives on EO and EEO under the rug in the hope that they will go away and yes, they will simply want you to take down the sign off the EEO and the EO director’s door and replace it with a sign that says “Director for Managing Diversity,” but you can’t manage diversity if you haven’t first achieved diversity. So I stopped by here to tell you that if you think that you can manage diversity without first achieving diversity in the words of Malcolm X you have been had, took, bamboozled, and hoodwinked.

—Claiborne Haughton, Jr.,
remarks to the MLDC, 2010

Figure 2.1. 21st-Century Inclusion Builds on the Foundation of 20th-Century Representation



SOURCE: Adapted from Defense Business Board Task Group on Increasing Diversity in DoD's Flag and Senior Executive Ranks, 2009.

America's Growing Diversity: A Resource for Leadership

It is critical for DoD leaders to understand that, by all accounts, *the racial, ethnic, and cultural makeup of the United States is changing*. Current projections from the U.S. Census Bureau (undated) suggest that black, Hispanic, Asian, and Pacific Islander populations of ages appropriate for military service will increase in the next century, while the non-Hispanic white segment will decrease. If the Services wish to stay strong in numbers, they must attract more individuals from traditional minority groups. Current military leadership undoubtedly recognizes the need to ensure a continuous replacement of departing servicemembers, especially during times of crisis or threat of crisis. A military stretched thin by a lack of new members and aspiring leaders can pose a serious threat to national security.

What is more, the Services need to develop and promote military leaders who reflect the forces they lead. It has always been in the best

Just as our military looks like America, so too must our general officers.

—Rep. James E. Clyburn (D-SC), 2008

The truest melting pot in our society exists aboard aircraft carriers, in barracks, and on bases. Mess halls and exchange service stores, shooting ranges and training facilities are portraits of diversity. But in the officers' clubs, a much different picture emerges.

—Rep. Kendrick B. Meek (D-FL), 2008

interest of the military to recruit and retain leaders who are representative of the many faces of America.⁵ Today's multiethnic and multicultural force is a living testament to the richly diverse population of the nation it serves. Current Service leadership, however, does not reflect the demographics of those they lead or serve.

10 The Commission believes that leadership positions held by men and women from the many race and ethnicity groups that make up the United States have the potential to instill pride among the populations they represent and to secure greater trust in military leadership. A demographically representative leadership can also encourage servicemembers from underrepresented groups to aspire to leadership roles themselves, or they can inspire youth from
20 different backgrounds to become interested in military service. One need only remember the popular perceptions of minorities serving as "cannon fodder" for white military leaders in Vietnam to understand how important ethnic, racial, and gender representation is to the psychological well-being and reputation of the U.S. military.⁶ Perceptions of a noninclusive military leadership can estrange the military from the people it represents and, ultimately, from which it draws its strength.

Diversity as a Force Multiplier

20 Since the terrorist attacks of September 11, 2001, the United States has faced an increasingly wide range of threats. The gap between conventional and unconventional warfare continues to widen. Enemy techniques, such as terrorism, Internet security invasions, hostage-taking, biological and chemical warfare, and suicide bombing, threaten America's citizens and allies in
30 ways previously unimagined. The 2010 *Quadrennial Defense Review Report* communicates DoD's commitment "to ensure that tomorrow's leaders are prepared for the difficult missions they will be asked to execute" by placing "special emphasis on stability operations, counterinsurgency, and building partner capacity skill sets in its professional military education and career development policies" (U.S. Department of Defense, 2010). DoD's newly formed vision of its requirements implicitly suggests that greater diversity be developed within and across the total defense workforce. Instead of falling easy prey to these threats by relying on outdated strategies, the Armed Forces must expand military skill sets and train the force so that the right people with the right capabilities and backgrounds are brought to the fight when they are needed.

New challenges have made emphasis on total force integration more critical than ever before, and DoD is facilitating a greater number of joint, coalition, and interagency collaborations that will allow threats to be analyzed and addressed from multiple points of view using multiple areas of expertise. Joint operations are a large-scale, military example of the strength that comes with diversity. The goal of joint operations is to bring together the Services' unique strengths and capabilities to maximize the odds of military success. Each Service has its own "personality"—traditions, culture, and modes of training, operating, and fighting. Joint operations do not level or

⁵ The issue of representation in the military has existed as long as the nation and represents "the legitimate concerns of the populace" about the motives and allegiances of its armed forces: "In a democracy, it is believed that a broadly representative military force is more likely to uphold national values and to be loyal to the government—and country—that raised it" (Armor, 1996).

⁶ Becton et al., 2003.

eliminate each force's unique traditions and capabilities but instead work toward seamlessly integrated tactical coordination and strategic direction. Army, Marine Corps, Navy, Air Force, and Coast Guard servicemembers are not outfitted with just one uniform or taught to employ one way of fighting: Each force maintains its culture, heritage, and ways of engaging in battle and peacekeeping missions. Joint operations have demonstrated that the inclusion of differences can enhance situational awareness, agility, and responsiveness to current and emergent threats. Integrating the Service's differences into a single coordinated force is difficult, and the Armed Forces have spent considerable time and treasure making it possible.

10 The Commission similarly recognizes that individuals come to the military not only with different cultural, racial, and religious backgrounds but also with myriad skill sets, talents, education levels, and work experience. All of these characteristics and attributes, if properly managed, can help the Services reap optimum results from their most valuable resource: their people.

In the new model of diversity and diversity management put forth by the Commission, there are four dimensions of characteristics that can assist in meeting the new missions:

1. *Demographic diversity* ensures that the Armed Forces consist of people of different race, ethnicity, , religion, and gender.
2. *Cognitive diversity* refers to different personality types, such as extroverted/introverted, and to different thinking styles, such as quick and decisive versus slow and methodical.
- 20 3. *Structural diversity* refers to organizational background differences, including Service, occupation, component (i.e., Active or Reserve), and work function.
4. *Global diversity* occurs through contact with those (e.g., members of foreign military services) who have national affiliations with countries other than the United States (Kraus et al., 2007; Lim et al, 2008).

Although *demographic diversity* alone is not enough to meet challenges ahead, it is a critical component of overall diversity. Including a broad range of men and women from different backgrounds can increase the likelihood that the U.S. military "knows the enemy" and is better able to work with international partners by adding to the cultural and linguistic knowledge base from which the forces may draw. Actively seeking demographic diversity also ensures that no talented individual will be "left behind" as a result of prejudice or discrimination. Engendering greater demographic diversity in both the rank and file and leadership will result in a military that is representative of the citizenry it serves.

Cognitive diversity ensures that the military will be able to fill both traditional and novel positions. Different skill sets, personalities, and thinking styles are needed to manage, strategize, equip, fight, operate, repair, and otherwise engage in any of the hundreds of functions that the Services perform daily (Issue Paper #4; Riche et al., 2007).

40 *Structural diversity* provides the expertise of servicemembers affiliated with particular occupations, Services, or components. It also enables needed capabilities to be brought to the table and fully incorporated into the mix. Exchanging information and perspectives across different branches or occupations can result in innovative ways to confront the threat.

Global diversity is an inevitable part of today's missions. Both warfighting and peacekeeping are increasingly being done in cooperation with global coalition partners.

Diversity Management: An Institutional Priority

Many nonmilitary organizations recognize that diversity can provide a competitive edge if it is developed and managed properly. The Commission reviewed relevant management literature and a number of diversity goals from successful businesses. These emphasize the importance of developing and utilizing the diversity of their workforces in ways that improve outcomes, such as generating a larger customer base, boosting revenue, and improving cost-effectiveness. This set of organizational goals is usually referred to as the *business case for diversity*.

The corporate diversity statements generally shared two broad themes:

- 10 • Diversity, broadly defined, creates performance advantages through the synergy of people's different ideas and competencies.
- Good diversity management entails recognizing, appreciating, respecting, and utilizing a variety of human attributes, not just race and ethnicity.

The literature claims that broadly diverse work teams are capable of greater creativity, more innovation, and better communication than groups of homogeneous individuals. Diversity managers believe that people from different racial, ethnic, religious, educational, and work-related backgrounds develop more-innovative ideas and fresh approaches to everyday processes, tasks, and acts of communication, thus providing each member and the entire organization with immediate opportunities for growth and improvement.

- 20 DoD and the Services are also interested in improving performance through diversity, but their desired outcomes differ from those of nonmilitary organizations. These different objectives include increasing regional and cultural capabilities, better coordinating military and civilian capability, more seamlessly integrating the Guard and Reserves with the full-time, active-duty forces, and developing a broader inventory of specialized skills (such as foreign languages, medicine, and computer network operations).

- 30 The new definition of diversity and the focus on diversity management necessarily have profound implications for the way the military conducts big-picture and day-to-day personnel management, the Commission suggests that DoD accompany the release of the recommended definition—or indeed any new definition—with a mission statement that prioritizes equity and inclusion, provides a purpose that is actionable and measurable, and is accompanied by a concept of operations to advance implementation. As with any mission objective, diversity will require a clear presentation of goals, strategies, and tactics, as well as recommended processes for initiating and maintaining implementation to move closer towards success. Recommendations that can assist with the development of a diversity concept of operations are presented in the next three chapters.

- 40 Diversity management calls for creating a culture of inclusion in which the diversity of knowledge and perspectives that members of different groups bring to the organization shapes how the work is done (see Holvino et al., 2004). This involves changing the way people relate to one another within a single unit, within a particular military branch, and throughout DoD. In particular, although good diversity management rests on a foundation of fair treatment, it is not about treating everyone the same. This can be a difficult concept to grasp, especially for leaders who grew up with the EO-inspired mandate to be both color and gender blind. Blindness to

difference, however, can lead to a culture of assimilation in which differences are suppressed rather than leveraged (see Thomas & Ely, 1996).

Cultural assimilation, a key to military effectiveness in the past, will be challenged as inclusion becomes, and needs to become, the norm. Traditional basic training, for example, is focused on assimilating individuals into a fighting force tied together by adoption of similar terminology, custom, and attitude. However, current military operations are executed within more-complex, uncertain, and rapidly changing operational environments that defy the warfighting standards of the past and that need to be met with an adaptive and agile leadership that is ready to respond more flexibly and with a greater propensity for creative strategizing.

10 The need to leverage diversity while maintaining unit cohesion will require implementing new training and procedures and addressing new tensions—important elements of diversity management described later in this report.

Section II: Building the Foundation for Change

Chapter Three

ENSURING LEADERSHIP COMMITMENT TO DIVERSITY

Leveraging diversity as a vital strategic military resource will require the commitment, vision, and know-how of leadership, as well as an organizational plan for achieving the desired outcomes. Two different, but related, paths will need to be taken. One involves following through on equal opportunity principles and practices. The Commission's recommendations in this area will help the Armed Forces systematically develop a demographically diverse leadership that reflects the forces they lead. The second path involves the new understanding of broader diversity, which includes yet goes beyond demographics. Many of the recommendations are related to both of these aspects of diversity.

This chapter addresses what the Commission believes are its most far-reaching recommendations. They are the needed changes that will most securely set DoD and the Services on a path towards reaping the benefits of diversity.

Diversity Leadership Must Become a Core Competency

Recommendation 2—

To enhance readiness and mission accomplishment, effectively leading diverse groups must become a core competency across DoD and the Services. To implement this recommendation,

- ***a. Leadership training at all levels shall include education in diversity dynamics and training in practices for leading diverse groups effectively.***
- ***b. DoD and the Services should determine the framework (e.g., curriculum, content, methods) for how to inculcate such education and training into leader development, including how to evaluate its effectiveness.***

Both MLDC research and guest speakers from corporate and military backgrounds suggest that diversity can increase mission capability. However, in order to be effective, members of a broadly diverse unit or entire force must be led in ways that employ their differences while minimizing any negative influence that differences can have. Effective practices for leading a diverse group, referred to here as “diversity leadership,” address how leaders at all ranks and organizational levels shape the impact that diversity has on the forces under their command. Diversity leadership thus refers to how leaders influence the ways in which people and groups under their command relate to one another.

The Commission strongly believes that diversity leadership must become a core competency at all levels of the Armed Forces. Diversity leadership is a fundamental way of thinking and set of skills at which all military leaders must excel in order to get the best performance possible from the servicemembers they lead every day. Diversity leadership can be inculcated by focusing on the two strategies described below.

Leadership Training at All Levels Shall Include Education in Diversity Dynamics and Training

The MLDC identified a number of effective practices for leading diverse workgroups that can help the Services benefit from diversity and avoid some of the correlating pitfalls (see Issue Paper #29).

Studies suggest that effective diversity leadership begins with a leader looking through a “diversity lens” to identify and understand the diversity dynamics that are relevant in his or her command (see Issue Paper #29). Doing this requires the leader to

- recognize the “differences” that exist within the group
- understand the dynamics that can cause those differences to have negative impacts such as loss of cohesion, communications difficulties, or conflict, as well as create opportunities for having a positive effect on organizational performance
- apply leadership practices that can neutralize the potential negative impacts and, if possible, leverage those differences in support of the mission.

Diversity leadership involves applying practices that management professionals have long identified as successful people management techniques but that take on new significance for leaders of diverse workgroups. This is because leaders are responsible for the way the group communicates, cooperates, trusts one another, and remains cohesive.⁷ Absent effective leadership, such as the leader focusing the group on the overarching mission, this fundamental and powerful human process can create in groups and out groups within a given work unit or organization and strongly affect the on-the-ground functioning of a diverse group, in a planning room as well as in a war zone, at the platoon level and for the commander of a joint force. Facilitating strong communications, cooperation, trust, and cohesion can be challenging for leaders when members of the group are different.

The Commission emphasizes education as part of the recommendation pertaining to diversity leadership. Developing leaders to lead diverse groups effectively goes beyond training them to understand diversity; it requires educating them about the dynamics that diversity creates in work groups, and then training them in practices that will neutralize the negative dynamics and maximize their positive potential.

Diversity Leadership Education and Training Are Not the Same as Diversity Training

A training assessment performed by the Defense Equal Opportunity Management Institute, Directorate of Research (2008), found that diversity training within each Service addresses respect for demographic differences. Current diversity training does not, however, teach leaders to utilize differences to improve mission effectiveness. Briefings from DoD and Service representatives to the Commission indicate that the Services

⁷ These elements are in play because the fundamental mechanism through which diversity affects capability is social identity and social categorization (see, for example, Jackson, Joshi, & Ehrhardt, 2003; Tsui & Gutek, 1999; Tsui et al., 1992). People attach meaning to their memberships in identity groups, such as demographic or occupational groups, and these identity groups then shape behaviors and perceptions in different settings (see, for example, Mor Barak et al., 1998).

are generally not instilling these practices in their leadership paradigms, nor are they teaching them. Service representatives indicated that all Services do teach practices, however, that can be effective for leading both diverse and homogeneous teams.

The Commission stresses that diversity leadership training must be offered “at all levels,” because it is leaders who are in direct contact with the work groups that can make a difference in capability. The key term here is “work group,” because it is among these groups where day-to-day interactions among different people take place. In other words, the Commission views diversity leadership practices as the things that all leaders do, day to day, not what others (e.g., EO advisors, diversity officers, etc.) may do on their behalf.

10

DoD and the Services Need a Framework for Implementation and Assessment of Leader Development

The Commission found no syllabus that addresses diversity leadership and believes it important to ensure that DoD develop an overall framework within which the Services can develop their own leadership training.

The Commission acknowledges the large training burden already placed on the Services. As one Commissioner said, “The last thing we want is another training requirement, but we need to shift from an EO to a Diversity framework.” The framework will allow the Services to develop their own education and training modules, while ensuring that they address the same goal: creating a core competency at each level of leadership for leveraging diversity in the service of mission capability. In other words, the Commission is not proposing a new program but rather new modules for the Services to incorporate in their existing leadership programs.

20

Finally, the Commission recommends that once the curriculum, content, and methods are developed and implemented, they need to be evaluated. The Commission found no indication that the Services have thus far evaluated the effectiveness of either their leadership training or their diversity training. It did, however, hear about research showing that much of corporate sector diversity training is not effective for achieving the corporate goal of greater minority representation in senior leadership positions (Dobbin, 2010; Kalev et al., 2006). Thus, evaluation is a serious concern and must be addressed for diversity leadership to become a true core competency.

30

Leadership Must Be Personally Committed to Diversity

Recommendation 3—

The leadership of DoD and the Services must personally commit to making diversity an institutional priority.

Successful change in an organization relies upon committed leadership. This is as true for the Services as for nonmilitary organizations. The Commission reviewed statements by CEOs and diversity professionals from a number of leading corporations, as well as statements by military leaders already committed to developing diversity. Time and again, it was stressed in documents

40

and presentations that *leadership must personally and visibly lead a diversity effort in order to bring about meaningful and lasting change.*

Organizational change is a top-down process, and creating a powerful coalition of leaders to manage and maintain the change process is a critical component of success. Persons in top leadership positions are the ultimate drivers of change, as they have both the authority to initiate new methods of operation and the final responsibility for ensuring their success. The leaders responsible for driving a diversity paradigm shift throughout DoD and the Services include the President of the United States, the Office of the Secretary of Defense (SECDEF), Congress, and leaders from each of the Services. Each of these leaders must authorize change as well as oversee the success of military diversity management programs and initiatives. Together, active top leaders can develop, implement, and maintain change by constantly reinforcing one another (see Issue Paper #29).

It is important to remember how critical strong leadership is for servicemembers' performance and morale. When change comes into view, there can be strong resistance. Changes that address people's racial, ethnic, religious, and other differences can prove to be especially challenging as these topics can be emotionally charged for many people.

A model of diversity leadership from the top is Gary Roughead, the current Chief of Naval Operations (CNO). Alone among the Service Chiefs, Admiral Roughead, in his diversity policy statement, states clearly and unequivocally that he will lead diversity initiatives: "As the Chief of Naval Operations, I will lead diversity initiatives in the Navy. I challenge all who serve to do the same through leadership, mentorship, service, and example" (Chief of Naval Operations, 2008). He and his predecessor as CNO, the current Chairman of the Joint Chiefs Admiral Mike Mullen, spoke to the Commission movingly and personally of their commitment to diversity (Mullen, 2009; Roughead, 2010).

The first and most effective thing in any organization's desire to manage diversity is clear-cut support from the senior leader.

—Luke Visconti, CEO of DiversityInc

Senior leadership commitment in both word and action was the most commonly cited key to success mentioned in the Task Group's best-practices interviews. Interviewees were adamant that the Chief Executive Officer's (CEO's) leadership must be visible to the whole organization, that it must be plain-spoken, clear, convincing, frequent and supported by action. The CEO must incorporate this commitment into the corporate strategy, culture and values.

—Defense Business Board Task Group on Increasing Diversity in DoD's Flag and Senior Executive Ranks, 2004

Part of getting there . . . is if your senior leadership declares [diversity] as key to its success and the key leaders—the top leaders—are actively, not passively, but actively managing the process.

—Michael Montelongo, Senior Vice-President and Chief Administrative Officer of Sodexo

Diversity Needs to Become an Integral Part of DoD Culture

Recommendation 4—

DoD and the Services should inculcate into their organizational cultures a broader understanding of the various types of diversity by

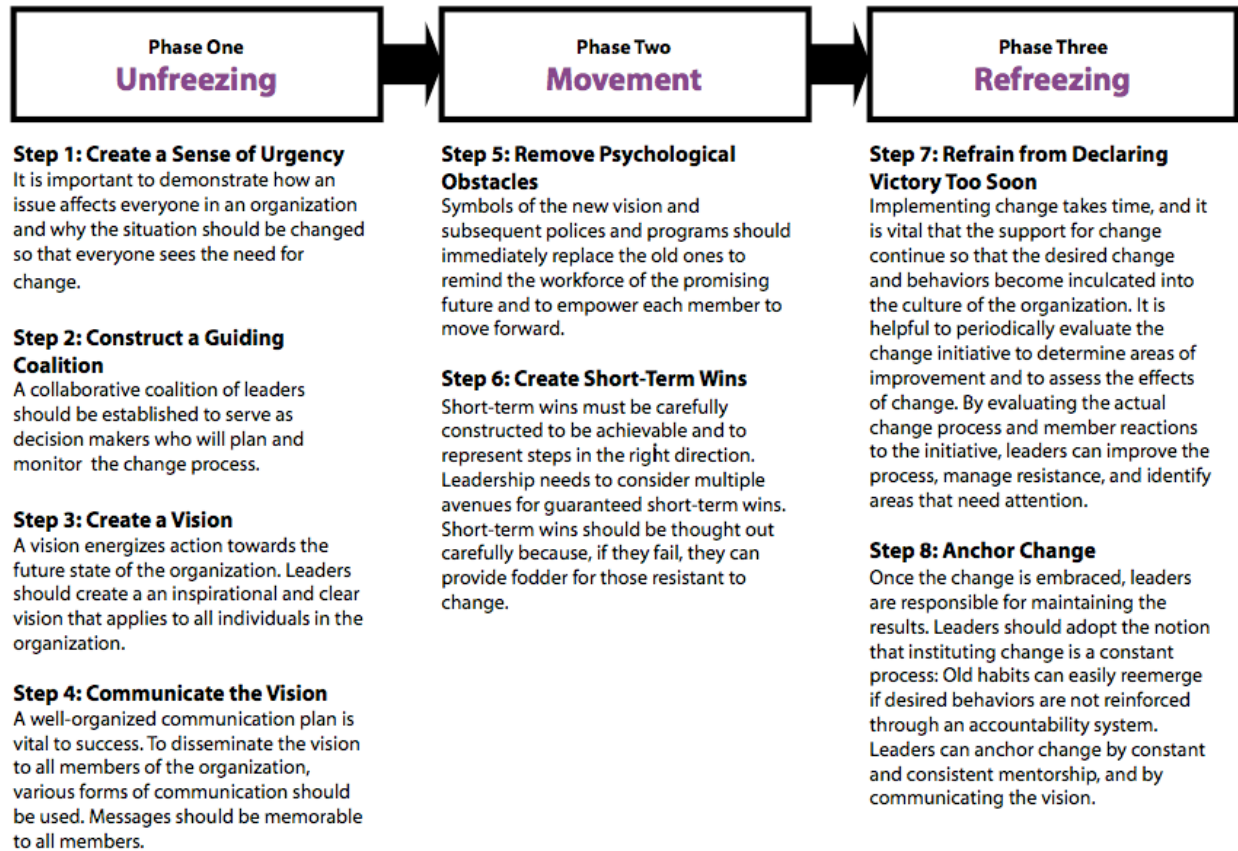
- ***a. Making respect for diversity a core value.***
- ***b. Identifying and rewarding the skills needed to meet the operational challenges of the 21st century.***
- ***c. Using strategic communications plans to communicate their diversity vision and values.***

Deep changes, as those called for in the Commission’s recommendations, cannot be instituted by the push of a button. If DoD is to institutionalize the new definition of diversity so that all servicemembers understand its meaning and importance and act accordingly, leading diversity to enhance mission effectiveness must become inherent to military culture.

10 All personnel must be aligned with diversity objectives in order to truly reap the benefits of diversity. Making diversity and diversity leadership top priorities may call for individuals to step beyond their comfort zones from time to time. For example, if a leader is faced with a choice between two very different individuals of equal qualifications, he or she must be ready to choose that person who best enhances the diversity of the work unit, knowing that diversity has the potential to improve the work of that unit. This “difference” could mean gender, race, ethnicity, or religion, but also educational background, specialty, or international experience. Although this is one example of a decision, it is important to remember that increasing the diversity of DoD and each Service requires thousands of decision makers in similar situations to go beyond the comfort of familiarity of old ways of thinking.

20 To inform its recommendation for effectively introducing and implementing the new understanding of diversity throughout DoD, the Commission reviewed management literature and found that leaders most effective in undertaking fundamental change followed some variation of Figure 3.1. Leaders understand that in order to last, change must be introduced by “unfreezing” old attitudes and behaviors, implemented through forward “movement,” and then sustained by “refreezing” new behaviors and attitudes.

Figure 3.1. Best Practices for Managing Change



The eight steps presented in Figure 3.1 may help leadership institute those changes necessary to inculcate diversity into Service cultures while reducing resistance to the changes. Notably, this is not a quick-fix method; rather, it is a continuous process to improve the staying power of new programs and policies by developing servicemember commitment through planning and communication from the top down. It is critical that each leader subscribe to the same clear vision of diversity, because these leaders will be communicating the vision to all members in the organization. It is also important that the vision of diversity include the entire workforce.

Leadership should express why the future state is better than the current state, explain how the Service and DoD will arrive at the future state, and inspire all members to reach new goals.

To carry out this recommendation, the Commission recommends three key strategies.

All Members of DoD and the Services Must Understand Respect for Diversity as a Core Military Value

Core values are unchanging foundational principles that guide how people in an organization conduct their everyday business. An organization's core values do not require external justification. They are the internal structure that informs the way members will interact with one another, and guide the strategies that the organization will employ to fulfill its mission. Ultimately, core values motivate how the organization works and give a shared identity to people belonging to it.

In 1969, DoD issued the first DoD Human Goals charter,⁸ which explicitly and publicly recognized respect for diversity as a value integral to the DoD identity (U.S. General Accounting Office, 1995). From 1969 through 1998, evolving versions of the charter have been signed by every incoming Secretary of Defense as well as the leadership of the military departments and Services.⁹ Excerpts of the 1998 Human Goals charter follow:

10 In all that we do, we must show respect for the serviceman, the servicewoman, the civilian employee, and family members, recognizing their individual needs, aspirations, and capabilities. . . . We [must] strive: . . .

- TO provide opportunity for everyone, military and civilian, to rise to as high a level of responsibility as possible, dependent only on individual talent and diligence;
- TO assure that equal opportunity programs are an integral part of readiness;
- TO make military service in the Department of Defense a model of equal opportunity for all regardless of race, color, sex, religion or national origin;
- TO create an environment that values diversity and fosters mutual respect and cooperation among all persons.

⁸ The Charter was ahead of its time in its statement on goals for the civilian workforce: “TO provide equity in civilian employment regardless of race, color, sex, religion, national origin, disability, age, or sexual orientation, and to provide an environment that is accessible to and usable by all.”

⁹ DoD Directive 1440.1 mandates that DoD “prepare a new DoD Human Goals Charter each time a new Secretary of Defense is appointed” (U.S. Department of Defense, 1987). The last charter was signed in 1998 by then-Secretary of Defense William Cohen. The Human Goals Charter was not renewed by the George W. Bush administration and, as of December 2010, has not been renewed by the Obama administration.

PREDECISIONAL DRAFT

From Representation to Inclusion: Diversity Leadership for the 21st-Century Military



Department of Defense HUMAN GOALS

OUR Nation was founded on the principle that the individual has infinite dignity and worth. The Department of Defense, which exists to keep the Nation secure and at peace, must always be guided by this principle. In all that we do, we must show respect for the serviceman, the servicewoman, the civilian employee, and family members, recognizing their individual needs, aspirations, and capabilities.

THE defense of the Nation requires a well-trained volunteer force, military and civilian, regular and reserve. To provide such a force, we must increase the attractiveness of a career in the Department of Defense so that service members and civilian employees will feel the highest pride in themselves, their work, their organization, and their profession.

THE ATTAINMENT OF THESE GOALS REQUIRES THAT WE STRIVE

TO attract to the Department of Defense people with ability, dedication, and capacity for growth;

TO provide opportunity for everyone, military and civilian, to rise to as high a level of responsibility as possible, dependent only on individual talent and diligence;

TO assure that equal opportunity programs are an integral part of readiness;

TO make military service in the Department of Defense a model of equal opportunity for all regardless of race, color, sex, religion, or national origin;

TO provide equity in civilian employment regardless of race, color, sex, religion, national origin, disability, age, or sexual orientation, and to provide an environment that is accessible to and usable by all;

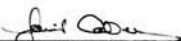
TO hold those who do business with or receive assistance from the Department to full compliance with its equal opportunity policies;

TO help each service member in leaving the service to readjust to civilian life;

TO create an environment that values diversity and fosters mutual respect and cooperation among all persons; and

TO contribute to the improvement of our society, including its disadvantaged members, by greater utilization of our human and physical resources while maintaining full effectiveness in the performance of our primary mission.


Chief of Staff, U.S. Army


Secretary of the Army


Secretary of Defense


Chief of Naval Operations


Secretary of the Navy


Deputy Secretary of Defense


Chief of Staff, U.S. Air Force


Secretary of the Air Force


Chairman, Joint Chiefs of Staff


Commandant, U.S. Marine Corps


Director, Administration and Management

July 24, 1998

A process was followed that helped the Human Goals charter became part of DoD's culture. The Honorable Claiborne Haughton recalled the procedure when he addressed the March 2010 MLDC meeting:

It must go out to all of the major elements of the Department of Defense and be coordinated and get their concurrence. . . . [T]he signatories are the Secretary of Defense, Deputy Secretary of Defense, and the secretaries of the Army, Navy and Air Force, the Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff, the Service Chiefs, and the DoD general counsel. Those are all the top leaders . . . and they must sign on to that charter before we can present it to the Secretary of Defense for signature, and so it is done that way each time that the new charter has been prepared and issued. And the wonderful thing about it is then we are authorized to make . . . a huge Styrofoam copy or a printed copy, a small copy, and you send them all over, and so when you walk into federal agencies you will see where they have maybe a picture of the president or the agency chief on the wall when you first walk in, well then, most of the DoD [offices] back in that period, they would get the charter. It's [in the] EEO office and the commander's office, different places like that, so they are clear that this is the policy and practice of the Department of Defense, and what I really love about it is it allows new political executives and new military leaders . . . to get a briefing on why should they sign that charter. They are briefed on what it is. They know what they are signing up to and they get a clear statement of the vision upfront.

The charter has not been renewed since 1998. The Commission believes that it is an important statement for the leadership to make. Of course, much more action will be required than simply reissuing the charter. For change to take root, appreciation and respect for diversity need to become an integral part of what it means to be a U.S. servicemember, and a strategic approach is required. Exposure to core values begins with recruitment, is forged at boot camp and officer induction training, and reinforced throughout a career, both in professional military education, and in the unit. The Service must take this new core value on board and inculcate it into each of their cultures throughout the servicemember life cycle.

Skills Critical to 21st-Century Mission Success Need to Be Identified and Rewarded

Military operations are changing, and the mix of skills required of the Armed Forces is also in flux. The Commission believes that future leadership in the officer corps will require a wider range of competencies to be effective in the future operational environment. This assumption is supported by changes that have already occurred since 9/11 and by forecasts of needed competencies made in such reports as the QDR. The Commission's research found that 21st-century military leaders will need

- the ability to work collaboratively in interagency environments, with different governments, and in nation-building activities
- keen decision making skills, as leaders will need to address complex and uncertain emergent threats in 21st-century operational environments
- greater expertise in foreign language, regional, and cultural skills

PREDECISIONAL DRAFT

- technological skills, as U.S. military and civilian cyber systems are becoming more complex to defend and utilize.

The Commission recognizes that DoD must also contend with its longstanding concerns that the Armed Forces may not possess enough people with the skills necessary for stability operations. Foreign-area officers, enlisted regional specialists, civil affairs personnel, military police, engineers, and psychological operations personnel are all professionals whose skills are needed for military success, and yet may be insufficiently represented in the personnel pipeline and sparsely represented in senior leadership.

10 Many needed skills may best be acquired through incorporating reserves, civilians, and contractors more closely into the total force. DoD is already addressing structural diversity through its work in total force integration and what is increasingly becoming an operational reserve. The total force together can provide skills in high demand but short supply in the Active Component. Computer skills, language proficiency, civil affairs knowledge, and other relevant expertise are likely available in the civilian skill sets possessed by reservists. Efforts are also ongoing to incorporate government employees from a range of agencies into overseas operations.

To attract and retain the range of talent it needs, the Services may need to broaden their conception of who belongs in the military and what it takes to be a member of the Armed Forces. Instead of total reliance on “growing their own,” the Services may want to explore lateral entry, bringing onto active-duty older people who already possess the experience and expertise that
20 would be difficult, costly, and time consuming to create from scratch. A wider range of requirements will call for more types of people. For example, can the remotely piloted vehicle (RPV) operator do his job from a wheelchair? To compete with the private sector, does the military need to adapt to the ethos of the computer nerd?

A broader range of expertise is needed not just at the deckplate but also for the wardroom and at the highest levels of the military hierarchy. The current composition of senior leadership is heavily weighted towards tactical occupations, or warfare specialties. Officers in these specialties, such as infantry (Army and Marine Corps), fighter pilot (Air Force and Navy), and surface warfare (Navy) have been recognized and rewarded as they possess the historical core competencies of their Services. An impartial observer may wonder, however, whether the skills
30 that are valued match up with the competencies currently in highest demand. This is not merely a matter of providing opportunities to traditionally undervalued specialties. It becomes mission critical if needed expertise is not present at councils of war or at meetings of four-star leaders, where the Services make decisions about their strategic direction.

The bottom line is that changing operational requirements requires new expertise to be sought out, developed, and integrated into both the workforce and the leadership. How do the Services implement this recommendation? How do they indicate that they value important new skills? At the June 2010 Commission meeting, the CNO recommended looking at promotion board precepts (the guidance provided to promotion boards). He indicated that he has revised the precepts to reflect changing needs, with visible results in the mix of skill sets among one-star
40 officers. He suggested that the way to shape the force for tomorrow is to change the precepts today (MLDC meeting, June 2010).

Use Strategic Communications Plans to Communicate Diversity Vision and Values

Leaders need to recognize that some servicemembers may react negatively if they feel diversity management initiatives and programs are basically a new repackaging of EO initiatives that will benefit some and not others. Other servicemembers may simply think things are fine the way they are, and wonder why there is a need for the changes that a paradigm shift will undoubtedly elicit. Most troubling, research shows that if it is not managed effectively, diversity—whether defined in traditional demographic terms or more broadly—can actually *reduce* workforce capability. This failure occurs most frequently because of decreased communication and/or the increased conflict that can result when some people are (or feel) excluded. Thus it is the leaders' responsibility to communicate the new vision and values and why they matter.

One of the first steps towards establishing the new diversity paradigm as part and parcel of DoD culture is to plan and execute a high-profile communication effort explaining the values and vision behind these policies. The change management literature suggests that successful introduction and maintenance of a new institutional culture requires multiple, interconnected exposures to core values. Any one such communicative effort—a poster, a briefing, a leader's orders—alone is unlikely to have much effect. A thoughtful communications plan, ensuring consistent messages from leaders at all levels, is vital for successful culture change.

The communications plan should have consistent internal and external components that explain the importance of diversity, inclusion, and diversity leadership to Armed Forces. All communications elicited under the plan should explicitly address how diversity is critical to military success. Finally, the individual servicemember should be able to understand the expectations and implications of the new vision for his or her behavior.

Congress Needs to Take Action to Ensure Sustained Progress in Diversity

Recommendation 5—

Congress should revise Title 10, Section 113, to

- ***a. Require the Office of the Secretary of Defense to develop a standard set of strategic metrics and benchmarks to track progress toward the goal of having a dynamic and sustainable 20–30-year pipeline that yields (1) an officer and enlisted corps that reflects the eligible U.S. population across all Service communities and ranks and (2) a military force that is able to prevail in its wars, prevent and deter conflict, defeat adversaries and succeed in a wide range of contingencies, and preserve and enhance the all-volunteer force.***
- ***b. Add diversity annual reports to the list of topics on which the Secretary of Defense reports to Congress and the President. Similar provisions should be added to Title 14 for Coast Guard reporting and to Title 32 for National Guard reporting.***
- ***c. Require the Secretary of Defense to meet at least annually with Service Secretaries, Service Chiefs, and senior enlisted advisors to drive progress toward diversity management goals.***

Commitment to change is expressed fully by national leaders when new goals and values are made into law. Title 10, Section 113, requires that the Secretary of Defense report to Congress

annually on a number of important topics concerning the operations and activities of DoD. These reports include information on the work, accomplishments, expenditures, and savings of the Armed Forces; the justification for projected military missions and force structure; and an account of the military and civilian personnel assigned to support positions in the past five fiscal years. The Commission found that the law does not require any reports that could help drive diversity management initiatives further across DoD. Many of the Services are performing assessments and reporting on diversity for themselves, but these efforts are focused on demographic diversity only and are not sufficiently consistent in what they measure or how they measure it to allow for DoD-wide assessments.

10 The Commission wishes to stress that producing a 400-page report that presents undigested diversity-related data is *not* the intention of this recommendation. Any report elicited by new diversity initiatives must ultimately drive improvement. Thus, reporting should focus on a key set of strategic metrics linked to the end state and include analysis and action items.

 The Commission proposes the three key changes to reporting requirements as described below.

The Office of the Secretary of Defense Should Develop a Standard Set of Strategic Metrics and Benchmarks

20 The Commission recommends that Congress direct the Office of the Secretary of Defense (OSD) to develop meaningful metrics that are clearly tied to its diversity goals. These metrics, focused at the strategic level, will not only give Congress and the President the ability to track DoD's progress: They will also improve the Secretary's understanding of where the Department and the Services stand in achieving their goals.

 Diversity managers of major companies all stressed that strategic metrics must be driven from the top—the CEO level—and that there must be an accountability structure supporting the metrics. Simply put, collecting data without an idea of how to use it will not result in improvement. To drive improvement, the data must be linked to organizational goals, be demanded by leadership, and form the basis of an accountability structure.

30 The Commission found that the Services are at various stages in their work on diversity and have taken a variety of approaches. Although many of the Services are doing substantial work in this area, the work is primarily personality driven and is not institutionalized.¹⁰ By developing DoD-wide metrics, OSD will facilitate the Services' work with their respective diversity initiatives and align each Service with DoD-wide goals. (Chapter Eleven's discussion of Recommendation 16 will cover metrics in more detail as part of policy development and enforcement.)

 The metrics and benchmarks that the Commission is calling for are those that support the understanding that the new diversity paradigm is a response to both U.S. demographic shifts and the challenging mission environment. These metrics and benchmarks should be designed in a way that enables the Secretary of Defense to track progress toward a goal of having a dynamic

¹⁰ Certainly we can see the difference between the perspectives of CNO Roughead on one hand and former Commandant Marine Corps Conway on the other. These different personal perspectives translated into major policy and practice differences between the Navy and the Marine Corps. When questioned on why the Navy had a string of three CNOs who were out front on demographic diversity, CNO Roughead (2010) said it was because one CNO had influence over who was picked to be the next CNO.

and sustainable 20–30 year pipeline of individuals who represent the U.S. population and who have the diverse backgrounds and skills needed to face the challenges of the coming years.

Assessment Should Result in Annual Reports to Congress and the President, Authorized by Corresponding Laws for the Services, the Coast Guard, and the National Guard

Reporting is one of the most powerful methods of communication available to the President, Congress, and military leadership needing to oversee and review the implementation of DoD policy. Department and Service-wide performance reports can ensure that the right information is put into the hands of the right decision-makers at the right time.

10 As stated, the MLDC recommends that Congress revise Title 10, Section 113, to require that the Secretary of Defense report annually on progress toward diversity goals. It follows that similar provisions be made in Title 14, for the Coast Guard (a part of the Department of Homeland Security, not DoD), and in Title 32, for the National Guard.

As codified in Title 10, the President is the Commander in Chief of the Armed Forces of the United States, including the National Guard and Reserve when called to active duty. However, most of the time, the National Guard is not on active duty and, therefore, not under federal control.

Title 32 assigns command of State Guard units to the Governor of the States; each is the commander in chief for his/her state National Guard when not under federal control.¹¹ As commanders in chief, the Governors select the Adjutant Generals to their states.

20 The MLDC recommends that Congress include the National Guard in its reporting requirements. This would mean revising 32 U.S. Code in a way that would require the National Guard Bureau to report annually to Congress and DoD on the status of progress toward its diversity management goals. This should include, but not be limited to, reporting on the extent to which each state's Guard, including its leadership is representative of that state's general population, relevant labor pool, and eligible population. The report should cover all ranks of the Army and Air National Guard in each state, territory, and the District of Columbia. Requiring these reports will ensure a persistent focus on diversity issues and place accountability at the state level.

30 **Regular Meetings Between the SECDEF, Service Secretaries, Service Chiefs, and Senior Enlisted Advisors Should Be Held to Drive Progress**

Like reports, meetings can drive collective progress toward goals. The Commission recommends that Congress require that the Secretary of Defense hold an annual meeting with the leadership of each of the Services. These meetings are an opportunity for the Secretary to monitor the state of diversity in each of the Services. The meetings could focus on and revisit diversity management goals by going over key strategic metrics, analyses of the root causes of potential concerns and potential action items for improvement. (Additional information and ideas on these meetings are provided in the discussion of Recommendation 17.)

¹¹ The President is the Commander-in-Chief of the District of Columbia National Guard.

Conclusion

The Commission believes that developing diversity leadership skills, establishing diversity as a military core value, and reporting on new key milestones throughout DoD and the Services will firmly communicate that the leadership's commitment to diversity is absolute. The recommendations presented here are founded on military and private-sector best practices and are the foundation for the "way forward" in an era of mission uncertainty.

Section III: Developing Future Leaders

Chapter Four

DEMOGRAPHIC COMPOSITION OF TODAY'S MILITARY LEADERSHIP

Current and former military leaders have long argued that developing and maintaining a qualified and demographically diverse leadership is critical for mission effectiveness (Becton et al., 2003; Lim et al., 2008). Specifically, they argue that the military should mirror the demographic composition of the population it serves and that senior leaders should mirror the demographic composition of the troops they lead. Chapters Four through Ten present an analysis of how specific barriers at each stage of the military personnel life cycle influence the diversity of military leaders and provides recommendations to address these barriers and increase diversity at each of these stages. Although the MLDC definition of diversity presented in Chapter Two states that “diversity is all the different characteristics and attributes of individuals,” Chapters Four through Ten focus primarily on increasing racial, ethnic, and gender representation within military leadership.

The focus on racial, ethnic, and gender representation is due to the fact that the MLDC charter specifically focuses on having the Commission evaluate “policies that provide opportunities for the promotion and advancement of minority members of the Armed Forces.” In addition, these categories represent historically and socially relevant groups and are easily measured compared with other unobservable individual attributes (Cox, 1994). The importance of increasing racial, ethnic, and gender representation within the military has also been a specific priority of senior military leaders and is argued to be critical to mission effectiveness (see Lim et al., 2008). Where appropriate, the Commission also makes recommendations for improving the representation of broader dimensions of diversity, such as structural, language, and cultural diversity.

This chapter offers an overview of the demographic composition of current military leadership. It documents that military officers today are less demographically diverse than both the *enlisted troops they lead and the broader civilian population they serve*. It concludes with the anatomy of the life cycle of a military career.

Chapters Five through Ten are organized around the stages of the military personnel life cycle, each stage of which promotes or impedes career advancement. Unlike other private and public organizations, the military operates as a closed personnel system. Senior leaders cannot be brought in from the outside but are instead brought up through the lower ranks. Therefore, each stage of the military personnel life cycle—from who is recruited to who is promoted—is intricately linked to the composition of future military leaders. By examining the policies and practices at each stage of the life cycle, the Commission was able to identify the barriers to advancement and the policy levers for reducing those barriers for members of underrepresented demographic groups.

Current Military Leadership Still Lags in Terms of Demographic Representation

Overall, the data show that the demographic composition of the officer corps is far from representative of the American population—and much less diverse than the enlisted troops.

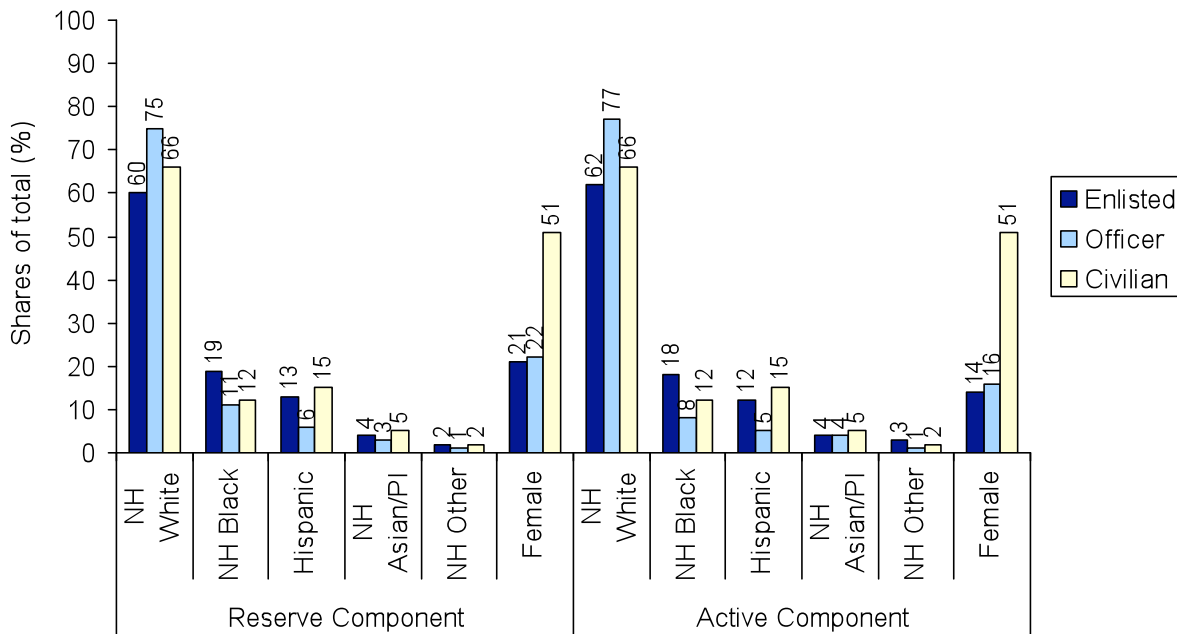
Racial and ethnic minorities and women are also underrepresented among senior noncommissioned officers across several Services within both the Active and Reserve Components.

The following sections draw upon a common dataset provided by the Defense Manpower Data Center (DMDC) to make comparisons among all five Services. They offer demographic snapshots of military leadership for both the Active Component (AC) and Reserve Component (RC) in September 2008.

The Officer Corps

10 For both the AC and RC, Figure 4.1 shows that, relative to the enlisted corps, non-Hispanic blacks, Hispanics, and non-Hispanic others (American Indians, Alaska natives, and those of more than one race) were underrepresented among officers. Only AC non-Hispanic Asian/Pacific Islanders had representational parity to the enlisted corps. In addition, both racial and ethnic minorities and women were underrepresented in the officer corps compared with the broader civilian population. Women were slightly overrepresented among the officer corps compared with the enlisted corps in both the AC and RC. However, their representation among both the enlisted and officer population was drastically lower than their representation in the overall civilian population.

Figure 4.1. Racial and Ethnic Minority Shares of Officers and Enlisted Personnel, by Component, September 2008

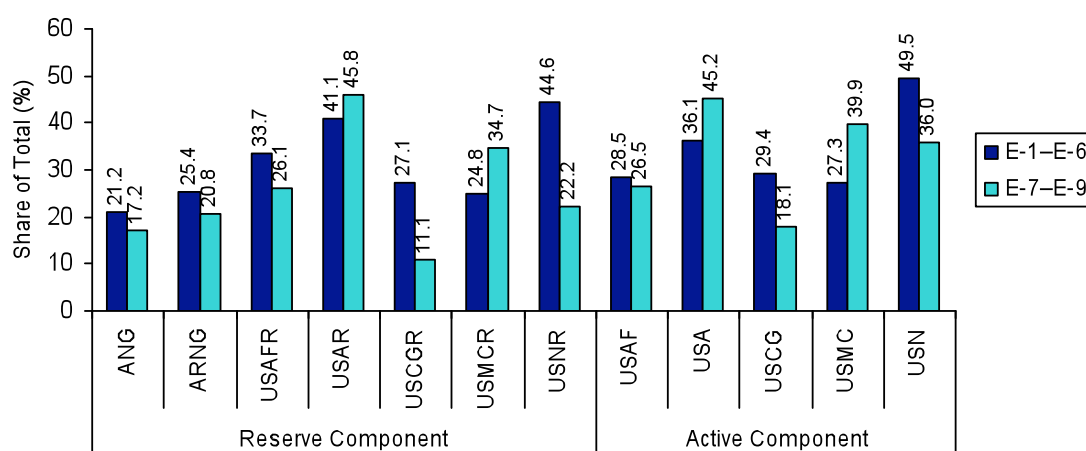


SOURCE: Defense Manpower Data Center, 2009; U.S. Census Bureau, 2008.

Senior Noncommissioned Officers and Officers

Racial and ethnic minorities were also largely underrepresented among senior noncommissioned officers and flag/general officers in most of the Services. Among senior noncommissioned officers (Figure 4.2), racial and ethnic minorities were underrepresented in the AC of the Air Force, the Coast Guard, and the Navy and were overrepresented in the Army and the Marine Corps compared with their representation in ranks E-1 through E-6. In the RC, racial and ethnic minorities were underrepresented compared with ranks E-1 through E-6 for all Services, except the Army and the Marine Corps Reserves.

Figure 4.2. Racial and Ethnic Minority Shares of Enlisted Personnel, by Service and Rank, September 2008

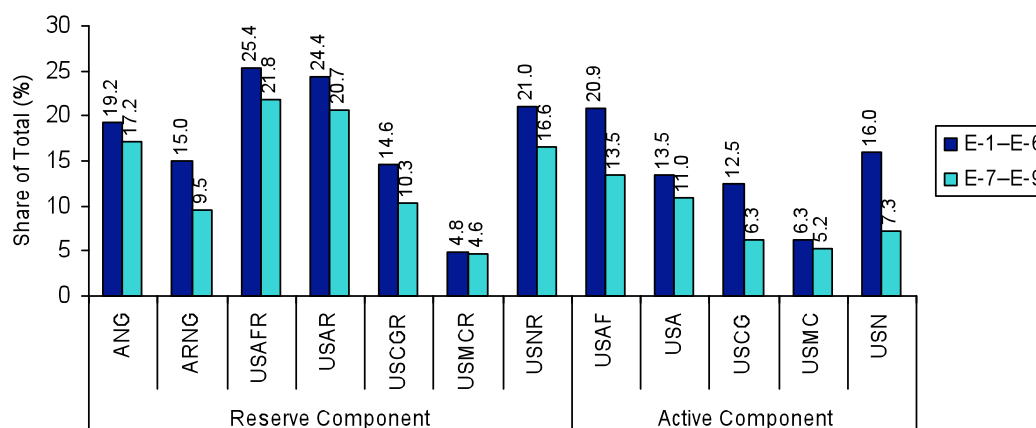


SOURCE: Defense Manpower Data Center, 2009.

NOTES: ANG = Air National Guard. ARNG = Army National Guard. USAFR = U.S. Air Force Reserve. USAR = U.S. Army Reserve. USCGR = U.S. Coast Guard Reserve. USMCR = U.S. Marine Corps Reserve. USNR = U.S. Navy Reserve. USAF = U.S. Air Force. USA = U.S. Army. USCG = U.S. Coast Guard. USMC = U.S. Marine Corps. USN = U.S. Navy.

Women were also underrepresented among senior noncommissioned officers across almost all Services and within both the AC and RC compared with their representation in ranks E-1 through E-6 (Figure 4.3). The only exception to this pattern was in the Marine Corps Reserves, where women in ranks E-1 through E-6 had approximate representational parity with noncommissioned officers. However, women in the Marine Corps Reserves constituted less than 5 percent of all enlisted Marine Corps Reserve personnel—the lowest share across all the Services.

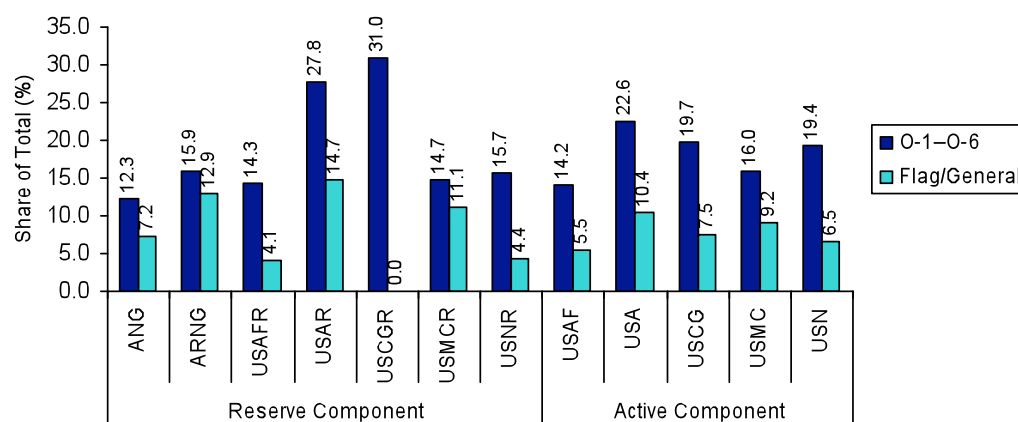
Figure 4.3. Female Shares of Enlisted Personnel, by Service and Rank, September 2008



SOURCE: Defense Manpower Data Center, 2009.

Among flag/general officers, racial and ethnic minorities were underrepresented across all Services for both the AC and the RC compared with their representation among officers of ranks O-1 through O-6 (Figure 4.4). However, it should be noted that, because the number of these officers was small, any change in the demographic composition could have significantly affected the percentages.

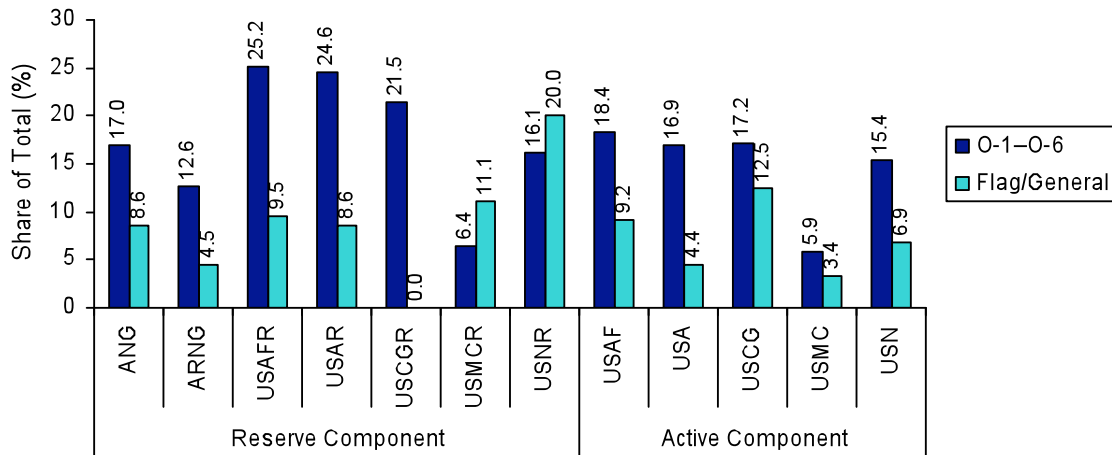
Figure 4.3. Racial and Ethnic Minority Shares of Officers, by Service and Grade, September 2008



SOURCE: Defense Manpower Data Center, 2009.

Women were also underrepresented among flag/general officers across almost all Services for both the AC and the RC compared with their representation among officers of ranks O-1 through O-6 (Figure 4.5). The only exceptions to the general pattern were the RCs of the Marine Corps and the Navy, where women actually constituted a greater percentage of the flag/general officer population compared with their presence in ranks O-1 through O-6.

Figure 4.5 Female Shares of Officers, by Service and Grade, September 2008



SOURCE: Defense Manpower Data Center, 2009.

Summary

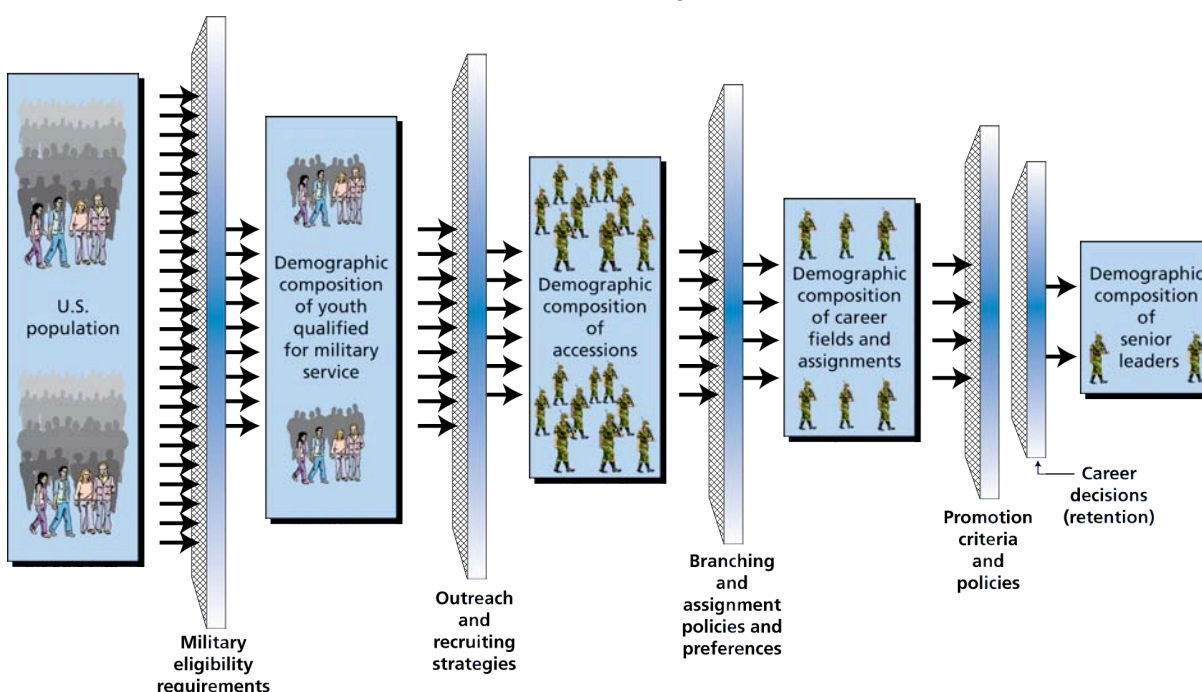
These data show that, as of 2008, officers were less demographically diverse than the enlisted troops they led and the civilian population they served. In addition, racial and ethnic minorities and women were underrepresented among senior noncommissioned officers across several Services within both the AC and the RC. Finally, racial and ethnic minorities and women (with the exceptions noted above) were underrepresented among flag/general officers across all Services within both the AC and the RC.

Given the desire of to maintain a military leadership that is demographically representative of the American public, it follows that military leadership should also represent the servicemembers they are entrusted with leading. Leaders coming from racial, ethnic, and cultural backgrounds similar to U.S. citizenry have the potential to inspire future servicemembers and engender trust among the population. Demographic similarities between the enlisted corps and their leaders can equally inspire and facilitate greater confidence. Also, given the fact that American demography is rapidly changing, it is important to design future policies that will shape personnel trends in desired ways. Advancing our understanding of how the military personnel life cycle both promotes and impedes members of underrepresented demographic groups from achieving leadership positions is a critical first step.

Stages of the Military Personnel Life Cycle

As explained earlier, unlike other private and public organizations, the military operates as a closed personnel system. Senior leaders cannot be brought in from the outside but are instead brought up through the lower ranks. Therefore, each stage of the military personnel life cycle—from who is recruited to who is promoted—is intricately linked to the composition of future military leaders. Figure 4.6 provides an overview of key stages of the military personnel life cycle and illustrates how the demographic composition of military leadership is shaped by the cumulative effects of barriers at each stage.

Figure 4.6. All Stages of the Military Personnel Life Cycle Affect the Demographic Composition of Military Leadership



As the figure shows, the potential demographic diversity of future military leaders is first shaped by eligibility requirements for new recruits to serve and outreach and recruiting strategies used to attract members of all demographic groups. Following this, career field and assignment decisions, which are shaped both by policy and individual preferences, influence the overall demographic composition within each career field and key assignments. The career fields and assignments servicemembers hold then play a role in overall career progression and the resulting demographic composition of those who advance to higher ranks. In the military, however, career progression is a function of both retention and promotion. That is, potential differences in who chooses to remain and who chooses to separate from the military influence the composition of the available promotion pool. Together, these stages of the military personnel life cycle—and the resulting demographic composition at each stage—determine the final demographic diversity of senior leaders.

At any stage of the personnel life cycle, a number of barriers may arise to impede career progression to higher ranks. These include both structural barriers and perceptual barriers. Structural barriers are “prerequisites or requirements that exclude minorities [and women] to a relatively greater extent than non-Hispanic whites [and men]” and are “inherent in the policies and procedures of the institution” (Kirby et al., 2000, p. 525). Perceptual barriers are “perceptions, attitudes, or beliefs that lead minorities [and women] to think they cannot or should not pursue . . . a job or career option” (Kirby et al., 2000, p. 525).

Chapters Five through Ten are organized around each stage of the military personnel life cycle and its associated barriers as illustrated in Figure 4.6:

- military eligibility requirements
- outreach and recruiting

- branching and assignments
- promotion
- retention.

Each chapter sets out the barriers that characterize that stage of the life cycle and their effects on the demographic composition of senior military leaders. Each concludes with the Commission's recommendations for addressing those barriers and increasing the proportion of demographic minorities that make it through to the next stage of the life cycle. For a more in-depth discussion of methods and findings related to a specific stage in the military personnel life cycle, please review the Commission's issue papers and decision papers appropriate to each topic.

10

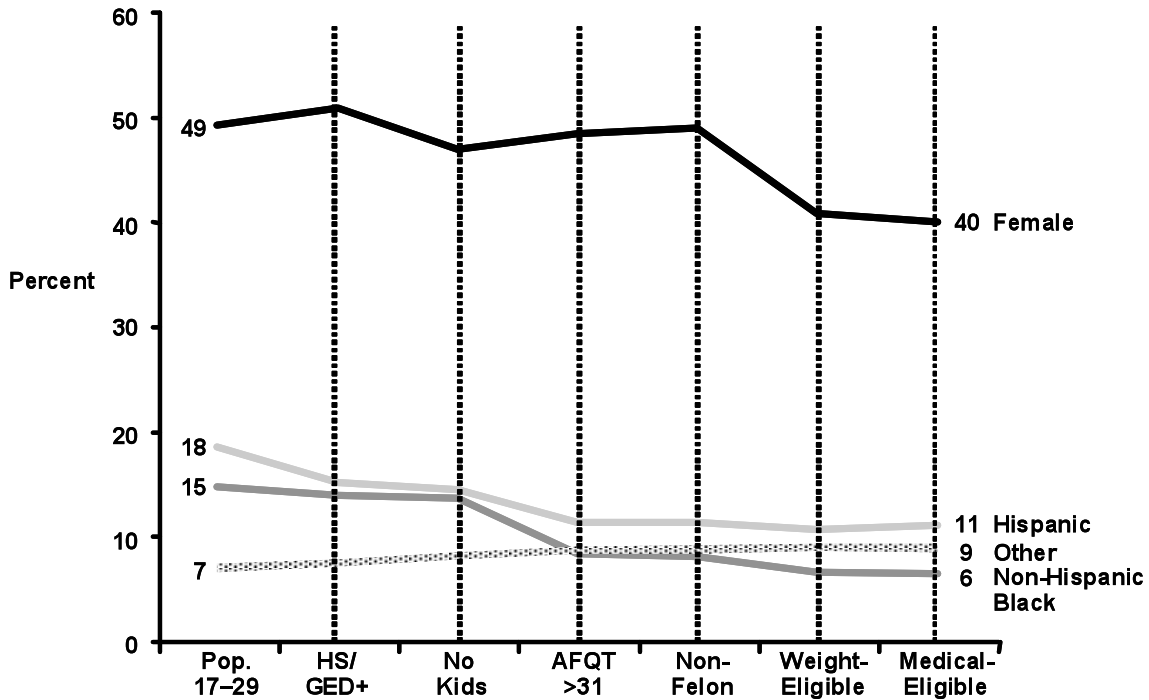
Chapter Five
THE ELIGIBLE POOL OF CANDIDATES

The pool of individuals from which the military can recruit is defined by specific eligibility requirements that present a structural barrier to service. Although these eligibility requirements may differ in degree between the Services, in general, those who wish to serve must first meet standards related to age, citizenship, number of dependents, financial status, education level, aptitude, substance use, language skills, moral conduct, height and weight, physical fitness, and medical qualifications (see Asch et al., 2009).¹² Together, these requirements define the eligible population from which the Services can recruit. Currently, however, a large portion of young people are not eligible to join the military. In fact, statistics released by the Pentagon show that 75 percent of young people ages 17–24 are currently not eligible to enlist (Gilroy, 2009). Furthermore, racial and ethnic minorities and, in some cases, women, tend to meet these eligibility requirements at lower rates compared with whites and men.

To illustrate the impact of these requirements on the demographic profile of eligible recruits, Figures 5.1 and 5.2 use some basic Marine Corps requirements to show how the percentage shares of the eligible population change with the successive addition of each new enlisted and officer requirement. First, examining enlisted requirements, Figure 5.1 shows how some basic Marine Corps enlisted requirements shaped the profile of the population that was eligible to enlist in 2009. For example, the education requirement (high school graduation or GED) and minimum test score requirements on the Armed Forces Qualification Test (AFQT) reduced the share of non-Hispanic blacks and Hispanics. The weight and body fat requirements, on the other hand, decreased the share of women who could enlist. Although there are some differences in how the other Services' requirements shape the profiles of their eligible populations, the overall patterns and effects are the same.

¹² In certain circumstances, some of these eligibility requirements can be waived. Which requirements and when they can to be waived varies by Service.

Figure 5.1. The Cumulative Effect of Individual Requirements on the Demographic Composition of the Eligible Enlisted Population



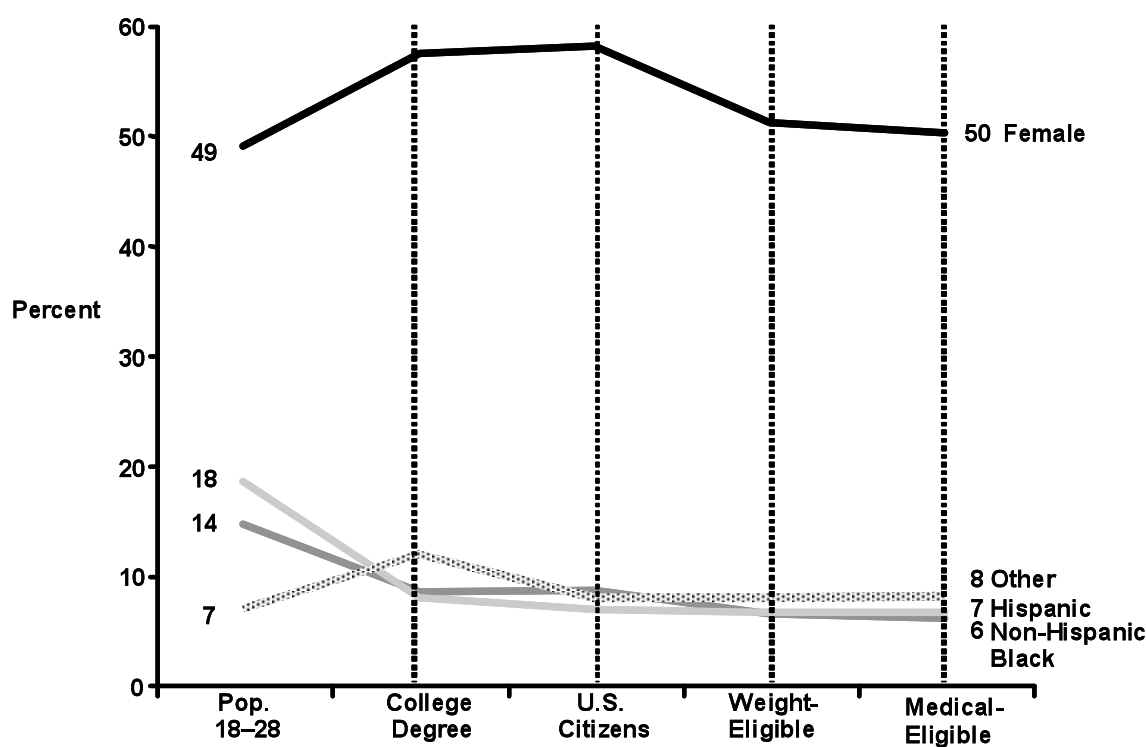
SOURCE: Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2006; Center for Human Research, 2005; U.S. Census Bureau, 2007.

NOTE: The “other” category includes Asians, American Indians/Alaska natives, Pacific Islanders, and unknown/missing race or ethnicity.

10 Similar patterns are seen in the eligible officer population. Besides height, weight, and medical standards, commissioned officers must have U.S. citizenship and a bachelor’s degree, and they must complete a commissioning program (i.e., Reserve Officer Training Corps [ROTC], Officer Candidate School/Officer Training School (OCS/OTS), or a Service academy), each of which has its own unique standards for admission. Again using Marine Corps requirements, Figure 5.2 shows how the percentage shares of the eligible population for each demographic group changed with the successive addition of each requirement in 2009. The share of non-Hispanic blacks and Hispanics decreased considerably with the addition of the college degree requirement, and the share of female and other representation increased.¹³ the female share of the eligible population was again decreased with the addition of weight and body-fat requirements.

¹³ The order of the requirements is arbitrary. We could have applied the citizenship requirement before the college-attainment requirement, and it would have shown a “bigger” effect among Hispanics.

Figure 5.2. The Cumulative Effect of Individual Requirements on the Demographic Composition of the Eligible Officer Population



SOURCE: Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2006; U.S. Census Bureau, 2007.

NOTE: The “other” category includes Asians, American Indians/Alaska natives, Pacific Islanders, and unknown/missing race or ethnicity.

10 These same requirements also dramatically reduce the overall size of the eligible pool of candidates from which the Services can recruit, given that, in addition to decreasing the number of racial and ethnic minorities and women that are eligible, they also decrease the number of white men that are eligible for Service, just at lower rates. This lack of eligibility among today’s youth has also been identified as a key concern in the recent *Quadrennial Defense Review Report*, which states that, “in coming years, we will face additional challenges to our ability to attract qualified young men and women into the armed forces. Among them are a large and growing proportion of youth who are ineligible to serve in the military for medical, criminal, ethical, or physical reasons” (U.S. Department of Defense, 2010, p. 51).

Stakeholders Should Develop and Engage in Activities to Expand the Pool of Qualified Candidates

Recommendation 6—

20 ***The shrinking pool of qualified candidates for service in the Armed Forces is a threat to national security. The stakeholders listed below should develop and engage in activities that will expand the pool of qualified candidates.***

- ***a. The President, Congress, and state and local officials should develop, resource, and implement strategies to address current eligibility issues.***
- ***b. DoD and DHS (Coast Guard) should***
 - ***Create and leverage formal partnerships with other stakeholders.***
 - ***Institutionalize and promote citizenship programs for the Services.***
 - ***Require the Services to review and validate their eligibility criteria for military service.***
- 10 • ***c. DoD and the Services should focus on early engagement. They should conduct strategic evaluations of the effectiveness of their current K–12 outreach programs and practices and increase resources and support for those that are found to be effective.***

The goal of this recommendation is for all stakeholders to develop and engage in activities that will expand the pool of qualified candidates for military service. It is important to note that the intention of this recommendation is not to lower eligibility requirements but instead to involve stakeholders in activities designed to bring the qualifications of today’s youth up to par with current eligibility requirements. The Commission proposes three key strategies for achieving this goal, as described below.

Develop, Resource, and Implement Strategies to Address Current Eligibility Issues

- 20 Our military readiness, and thus our national security, will depend on the ability of the upcoming generation to serve. Therefore, the shrinking pool of eligible individuals presents a critical issue to our military readiness. Although this particular national security issue is well outside the sphere of control, mission, responsibility, and resources of DoD and DHS, it is the collective national security responsibility of the President, Congress, and state and local officials. These top officials have the deep understanding and powerful capability to turn the tides on this issue by demonstrating a strong, united commitment to improving eligibility, by crafting, resourcing, and implementing an integrated and sustainable set of strategies. Addressing goals such as high-quality early education and appropriate in-school fitness plans can ensure that more young Americans meet the standards of the United States military, and that the military will be capable
- 30 of keeping America strong and safe.

DoD and DHS (Coast Guard) Should Engage in Several Initiatives

Create and Leverage Formal Partnerships with Other Stakeholders

It is not part of DoD or DHS’ mission to address the educational attainment issues or other problems affecting the youth of U.S. society. However, given the large number of youth who are not qualified for military service, particularly racial and ethnic minorities, DoD and DHS could partner with other federal departments, agencies, or state and district agencies whose job it is to address these issues. Therefore, the MLDC recommends that DoD and DHS develop or expand current formal partnerships with entities such as the as the Department of Education, the Department of Health and Human Services, or similar agencies at the state and district levels.

Institutionalize and Promote Citizenship Programs for the Services

In an effort to further expand the pool of qualified candidates, the MLDC recommends institutionalizing and promoting successful citizenship programs. One such program is the Military Accessions Vital to the National Interest (MAVNI) program, which was authorized as a pilot program on November 25, 2008, by the Secretary of Defense (Stock, 2010; Verdugo, 2010).

Although non-citizens have served in the military throughout history, changes in law have served to limit their service. According to Title 10, Section 504(b)(1), enlisted personnel must be U.S. citizens, lawful permanent residents of the U.S. (green card holders), or citizens of the Federated States of Micronesia, the Republic of the Marshall Islands, or Palau. This requirement disqualifies thousands of otherwise eligible legal noncitizens from service in the U.S. military. However, a provision within this same law allows a Service secretary to authorize the enlistment of a person, regardless of citizenship status, if the secretary determines that such enlistment is “vital to the national interest” (10 U.S.C. §504 (b)(2), 2009). This provision is the basis of the MAVNI program and before the inception of this program was used only in extremely rare cases.

Currently, the MAVNI program expands the eligible recruiting market to non-citizens who do not have green cards but are legally present in the U.S. if they are licensed health care professionals or speak at least one of 35 critical foreign languages. This includes noncitizens with certain student or work visas, refugees, asylees, and individuals with temporary protected status. Not only do the MAVNI recruits represent individuals with specialized skills that could greatly benefit the military, but they also tend to be at the higher end of qualified recruits. Thus, MAVNI represents a viable option in expanding the eligible recruiting pool to highly qualified, legal non-citizens who greatly increase linguistic and cultural diversity throughout the military, as well as racial and ethnic diversity. The MLDC recommends institutionalizing this pilot program to make it a permanent Service option and increasing the number of slots available for eligible MAVNI candidates. In addition, the MLDC recommends allowing other critically needed specialties to access via MAVNI and exploring the possibility of expanding the program to the RC (currently only MAVNIs who are health care professionals can serve in the RC). Finally, although there are many barriers to clearance and citizenship for officers, the MLDC also recommends exploring ways to expand MAVNI to pre-commissioning officer programs such as ROTC.

Review and Validate Eligibility Criteria for Military Service

The Commission recommends that DoD and DHS (Coast Guard) require the Services to review and validate their eligibility requirements to ensure that all requirements are mission essential. This recommendation is in no way advocating lowering the entrance standards. Instead, this recommendation is intended to ensure that all of the Service eligibility requirements are necessary and have been validated. In other words, the goal of this recommendation is to ensure that no individual is excluded from serving unnecessarily. Furthermore, ensuring that all requirements have been validated or are important predictors of key performance outcomes within each Service will help select the best candidates to join the military. It is important to not that there has already been extensive research done to validate many military requirements, such as the Armed Services Vocational Aptitude Battery (ASVAB) (e.g., Armor & Roll, 1994; McHenry et al., 1990; Ree & Earles, 1992) and the Air Force Officer Qualifying Test (AFOQT)

which is used for selection into Air Force ROTC and OTS programs (see Hardison et al., 2010). Therefore, those requirements that have been validated as strong predictors of key performance-related outcomes should continue to be used by the Services, while those that have not been validated should be examined as to whether they are good predictors of key performance-related outcomes.

DoD and the Services Should Focus on Early Engagement

To ensure that there is a large enough pool of qualified and demographically diverse candidates from which to recruit, the MLDC believes in focusing on early engagement to help youth become and remain academically successful, physically fit, and successful citizens. It should be added that early engagement programs and initiatives should not be created with the sole goal of recruiting youth for the military at young ages. Instead, the MLDC recommends that there be a renewed focus on good citizenship programs that provide youth with opportunities and guidance for more successful futures, regardless of whether they join the military.

The Services already have a variety of outreach programs for K–12 youth. These range from programs designed to help students stay in school, to programs focused specifically on introducing youth to science, technology, engineering, and math. However, it does not appear that these programs are consistently evaluated to determine the extent to which they achieve their stated goals. To assure that the more successful programs are continued or expanded and to identify potential gaps in the curricula of outreach programs, the Commission recommends that DoD and the Services conduct a strategic evaluation of the effectiveness of current outreach programs. At a minimum, the programs should be evaluated for the extent to which they decrease the rates at which eligibility requirements disqualify young people from military service. Following this strategic evaluation, DoD and the Services should focus on increasing resources for programs that have been found effective at addressing some of the primary military disqualification factors.

The Commission also recommends increasing funding for the Junior Reserve Officer's Training Corps (JROTC) program, which is a Service-sponsored citizenship program within high schools.¹⁴ JROTC is designed to promote leadership, physical fitness, motivation, and teamwork among young people. Participating students are urged to remain drug-free and to successfully graduate from high school. To our knowledge, there have been no studies examining the effectiveness of JROTC while controlling for self-selection bias. However, as reported by the Services, they track JROTC participants' attendance, high school graduation rates, indiscipline rates, drop-out rates, and GPAs in comparison to the rest of the school. On these outcomes, JROTC participants tend to outperform their nonparticipating peers. Based on this evidence, the Commission feels that JROTC appears to provide an important opportunity for outreach to racial and ethnic minorities and is associated with positive outcomes, indicting the potential for it to expand the pool of qualified youth not only for military service, but for the general workforce.

Finally, it is also important to note that there are nonprofit organizations outside of the Services that provide education and training to familiarize students with military culture, such as the Army Cadet Corp, the Civil Air Patrol Cadet Program, the Young Marines, the Devil Pups

¹⁴ Detailed information on the Junior Reserve Officer Training Corps Assessment can be found at ExpectMore.gov, 2006.

PREDECISIONAL DRAFT

From Representation to Inclusion: Diversity Leadership for the 21st-Century Military

(Marine Corps), the Naval Sea Cadet Corps, and the Navy League Cadet Corps. Because these programs are not under the authority and control of the Services, they are not included as part of the above strategic analysis recommendation. However, the Services may also want to explore whether these programs are effective in producing any of the above outcomes and if so, whether the Services could provide additional resources to benefit such programs.

Chapter Six OUTREACH AND RECRUITING

Given a limited pool of eligible candidates, outreach and recruiting strategies play a critical role in attracting *qualified* youth to military service. Furthermore, unlike private organizations, the military operates as a closed personnel system with today's senior leaders being composed entirely of those members who accessed into the military more than 25 years ago. Therefore, the demographic diversity of accessions directly influences the potential demographic diversity of future senior leaders, underscoring the importance of effective outreach and recruiting strategies within the Services. This chapter describes current outreach and recruiting practices across the Services, reports on the demographic composition of recent accessions, and recommends policies to improve recruiting of racial and ethnic minorities and women.

Outreach and Recruiting Programs Used Across the Services

During the October 2009 MLDC meeting, each Service presented a briefing on the outreach and recruiting programs it uses to attract members of currently underrepresented demographic groups. Although each Service has their own unique programs and practices, they often employ similar strategies. For example, the Services described establishing organizational divisions or offices specifically devoted to recruiting members of underrepresented demographic groups. They also conduct targeted advertising, such as creating marketing materials in multiple languages, advertising in college newspapers at historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs) and minority-serving institutions (MSIs). They use media and entertainment marketing sources directed at demographically diverse audiences such as Telemundo, Black Entertainment Television, and minority-oriented publications such as *Jet*, *The Root*, and *Black Collegian*. They work to establish connections with key community influencers (e.g., leaders, educators, and administrators) and affinity groups, including sending representatives to affinity-group events where high-quality candidates might be found. Some of these events include annual conferences such as those conducted by the National Society of Black Engineers, the Society of Advancing Hispanic/Chicano and Native American Scientists, and the National Student Nurses Association Conference. Finally, the Services also work to increase general visibility through social networking sites and participation in community mentoring programs.

Outreach and Recruiting Programs Across Officer Commissioning Sources

There are four main commissioning sources for officers (see Thirtle, 2001). These include direct appointments (usually civilians who serve in occupations requiring advanced education including law, medicine, and the chaplain corps), Service academies (four-year degree granting institutions), Reserve Officer Training Corps (ROTC) programs (students attend while pursuing their bachelor's degree), and Officer Candidate School/Officer Training School Programs (OCS/OTS; designed for candidates that have already completed their bachelor's degree). Given the uniqueness of these programs, they pursue similar recruiting strategies as those described above, but also have a few methods and programs of their own which are specific to their institutional needs.

For example, the Service academies described a number of key strategies they utilize to attract high-quality applicants from all demographic groups. These include providing summer seminar programs and candidate-parent weekend visits to promote exposure of their academies and targeting recruiting at high schools serving a high number of minority students. They also reported making use of academy preparatory schools and other academic-improvement programs designed to increase the eligibility of potential applicants. Finally, the Academies reported also holding a “Service Academy Diversity Conference” in which directors and chief diversity officers from the Service academies share knowledge and synchronize efforts.

10 Like the Service academies, ROTC and OCS/OTS programs use many of the outreach and recruiting methods of the general Services. However, they too have several programs designed specifically to attract high-quality applicants from all demographic backgrounds with college degrees or who have expressed intent to attend college. These include strategically establishing ROTC programs and academic scholarships at HCBUs and MSIs, as well as maintaining a targeted OCS/OTS recruiting presence at these same Universities for students ready to graduate.

Outreach and Recruiting Programs for the National Guard and Reserve

20 The National Guard and Reserve use many of the recruiting strategies discussed above. However, most of their recruiting is focused locally. Because they are effectively state entities, National Guard recruiting efforts are state specific. And although Reserve units can recruit both nationally and locally, the majority of their recruiting efforts are also locally focused because the costs of traveling from home to drill are not reimbursed for Reserve members. Thus, the National Guard and Reserve have unique strategies focused on local communities. These include engaging key community leaders and educators, attending local fairs, sports games, and other community events.

Demographic Diversity of Recent Accessions

30 As described above, the Services have a number of different outreach and recruiting programs targeted toward increasing the demographic diversity of accessions. Although there are no data on the individual effectiveness of each program, data on recent enlisted and officer accessions provide a baseline measure of how well current outreach and recruiting strategies are working to attract qualified candidates from all demographic groups. Therefore, the following section presents an overview of how demographically representative recent AC enlisted and officer accessions have been compared with the eligible recruiting pool. We do not include data on recent RC accessions because comparisons with the eligible population would need to be done on a state by state basis. In addition, a large percentage of RC enlisted (36 percent of Selective Reserve) and a majority of RC officer (87 percent of Selective Reserve) accessions are “prior service” accessions who have transferred from the AC.¹⁵ Issues related to helping servicemembers transition from the AC to the RC are addressed elsewhere in this report.

The Commission used a common data set from DoD’s report on *Population Representation in the Military Services*, also known as the Population Representation Report (PRR) for accession

¹⁵ Based on data from Defense Manpower Data Center (2010b).

data. The accession data presented below are from FY2007 and FY2008, which are the most recently published datasets. The eligible recruiting pool benchmark was created using data from the March 2008 Current Population Survey (CPS) (U.S. Census Bureau, 2008). For enlisted accessions, the eligible recruiting pool was defined as labor force participants who hold high school degrees or equivalents through four years of college (but no bachelor's degree) and are between the ages of 18 and 24. For officer accessions, the eligible recruiting pool was defined as labor force participants (i.e., people who are either employed or actively seeking work) who hold at least a bachelor's degree and are between the ages of 22 and 34.

Enlisted Accessions

- 10 With the exception of the Navy, which had roughly equal or overrepresentation of every nonwhite race and ethnicity group, each Service had one or more minority groups that were underrepresented compared with their representation in the eligible recruiting pool:
- Hispanics and non-Hispanic Asians were underrepresented in recent Army accessions.
 - Non-Hispanic blacks and Asians were underrepresented in recent Marine Corps accessions.
 - Hispanics were underrepresented in recent Air Force accessions.
 - Non-Hispanic blacks and Asians were underrepresented in recent Coast Guard accessions.
- 20 Additionally, although women constituted close to 50 percent of the eligible recruiting pool, they were underrepresented in recent accessions across all Services, constituting only 7 percent (Marine Corps) to 22 percent (Air Force) of recent enlisted accessions. Thus, the data show that there were several underrepresented demographic groups in recent enlisted accessions across the Services.

Officer Accessions

- As in recent enlisted accessions, there was considerable variation across the Services and, in particular, across the commissioning sources regarding racial, ethnic, and gender representation in recent officer accessions. Overall, the data showed that, compared with the eligible recruiting pool, there were several underrepresented race and ethnicity groups in the various officer
- 30 commissioning sources for each Service:
- All race and ethnicity minority groups were underrepresented among recent Army accessions in the main scholarship programs (ROTC and Academy programs).
 - Hispanics and non-Hispanic Asians were particularly underrepresented in Navy officer accessions.
 - Hispanics, non-Hispanic blacks, and non-Hispanic Asians were underrepresented among recent Marine Corps officer accessions.
 - All race and ethnicity minority groups were relatively underrepresented in Air Force officer accessions. However, the degree of unknown racial and ethnical
- 40 accessions was so large that it may call into question the accuracy of the data and the conclusions for the other groups.

- Hispanics, non-Hispanic blacks, and non-Hispanic Asians were underrepresented among recent Coast Guard officer accessions.

In addition, although women constituted more than 50 percent of the recruiting pool, they were underrepresented across all Services and commissioning sources.

Although the Services are currently engaged in a number of outreach and recruiting efforts, there is little information on the individual effectiveness of these various programs and practices. However, data on recent accessions suggest that across the Services, racial and ethnic minorities and women are still underrepresented even when compared with only the eligible population.

- 10 Therefore, if the Services would like to reflect the demographics of the larger eligible population, there needs to be further improvement in the outreach and recruiting efforts targeting members of underrepresented demographic groups.

Improve Recruiting from the Currently Available Pool of Qualified Candidates

Recommendation 7—

DoD and the Services should engage in activities to improve recruiting from the currently available pool of qualified candidates by

- 20
- ***a. Creating, implementing, and evaluating a strategic plan for outreach to, and recruiting from, untapped locations and underrepresented demographic groups.***
 - ***b. Creating more accountability for recruiting from underrepresented demographic groups.***
 - ***c. Developing a common application for Service ROTC and academy programs***
 - ***d. Closely examining the prep school admissions processes and making required changes to ensure that accessions align with the needs of the military.***

Create, Implement, and Evaluate a Strategic Plan for Outreach and Recruiting from Untapped Locations and Underrepresented Demographic Groups

- 30 All of the Services currently have recruiting strategies directed at demographically diverse populations, including many promising outreach programs. The Commission would like to see these initiatives continue and expand by having the Services evaluate the effectiveness of current spending on minority marketing and recruiting initiatives and then developing a clear strategic plan that will be submitted to DoD/DHS (Coast Guard) for evaluation.

The strategic plan should also include an examination of untapped recruiting markets of qualified racial and ethnic minorities, such as recruiting at two-year colleges and strategically locating ROTC host units.

Explore Recruiting at Two-Year Colleges

- 40 Recent data suggest that close to 50 percent of all students in college attend two-year colleges, with slightly higher percentages of blacks and Hispanics attending two-year colleges than

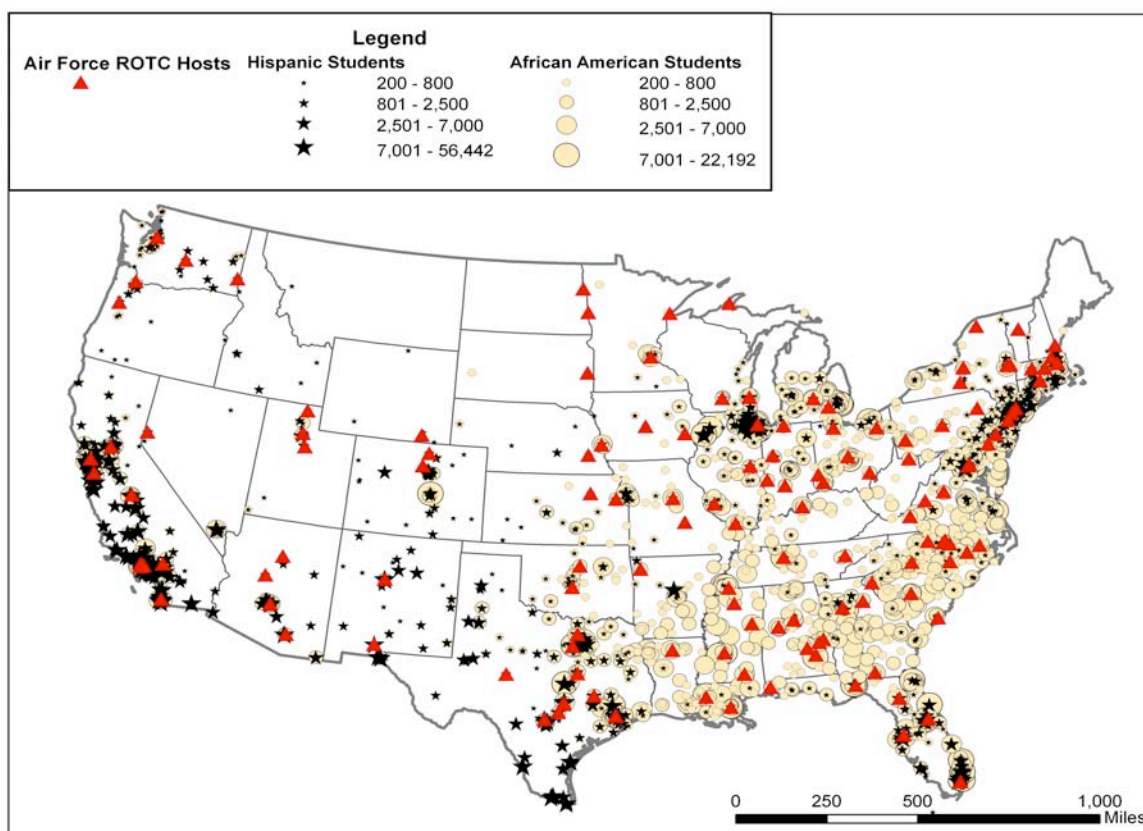
average (National Center for Education Statistics, 2008). Specifically, close to 60 percent of Hispanics attending college go to two-year colleges, and a little over half of blacks attending college go to two-year colleges. Furthermore, research done for the Navy found that those with two-year college degrees had higher test scores and higher continuation and reenlistment rates than those with only high school degrees (Kraus et al., 2004). Therefore, two-year colleges are a rich market for recruiting not only high-quality enlisted recruits but specifically high-quality Hispanic and black recruits.

Two-year colleges also represent a potentially rich market for ROTC recruits. One must have completed a bachelor's degree before commissioning through a ROTC program. However, roughly 17 percent of all students attending two-year colleges transfer to four-year colleges. This includes roughly 19 percent of Hispanics and 8 percent of blacks that later transfer to four-year colleges. Therefore, these represent members of underrepresented demographic groups that could be targeted for ROTC.

Examine Expanding ROTC Hosts to More-Demographically Diverse Locations

A second way to improve recruiting of racial and ethnic minorities is to ensure that ROTC host locations match the geographic distribution of student populations. For example, the map shown in Figure 6.1 uses Air Force ROTC units as an example. All Air Force ROTC host locations are identified by red triangles. The locations of black students are represented by circles, with larger circles indicating larger populations. The locations of Hispanic students are represented by stars, with larger stars indicating larger populations. Locations that have large populations of black students and/or Hispanic students, but no ROTC host (represented by triangles) represent potential areas for expanding ROTC diversity and production of officers. The map shows that there are potentially rich markets in Texas, the southeastern United States, California, and the mid-Atlantic region.

Figure 6.1. Comparison of Air Force ROTC Host Locations and Student Body Demographics



SOURCE: National Center for Education Statistics, 2008; U.S. Census Bureau, 2007.

In addition, given that the Services have limited resources and that the location of ROTC sites involves many stakeholders, the MLDC recommends instituting an independent council similar to the Defense Base Realignment and Closure Commission (BRAC) to evaluate and decide where new ROTC units should be placed and where unproductive ROTC units would best be moved. Of course, a key factor to be considered as part of the BRAC process is the extent to which ROTC host units are located at colleges and universities with large student populations of racial and ethnic minorities.

Create More Accountability for Recruiting from Underrepresented Demographic Groups

The Commission also recommends that DoD and the Services create more accountability for recruiting racial and ethnic minorities and women by developing goals for qualified minority applicants to precommissioning officer programs, developing formal processes for coordinating enlisted and officer recruiting, and working to improve congressional nominations to the Service academies.

Develop Goals for Qualified Minority Applicants

The Services have long employed incentive programs for recruiters to ensure that designated accession goals are met. This includes setting goals for the total number of accessions as well as goals for recruiting individuals with specific attributes such as a high aptitude level (e.g., AFQT score) or specific skills or degrees (see Oken & Asch, 1997). One way to ensure that there is a demographically diverse candidate pool from which to select applicants into precommissioning officer programs would be to develop goals for qualified minority applicants. This is a strategy currently employed by the Navy and Marine Corps, but not by the other Services. The goals would not be used during the actual admissions decision, but would help ensure that there is a demographically diverse pool from which to select new students each year. These goals should also be developed in careful consideration of the demographics of the eligible population.

Coordinate Enlisted and Officer Recruiting

The Commission also recommends that the Services explore developing formal processes for coordinating enlisted and officer recruiting. Except in the Coast Guard, enlisted recruiters are primarily focused on finding enlisted recruits. If they find a prospect with a bachelor's degree they are required to refer that person to the highest program for which he/she is eligible and must have him/her sign a waiver if he/she would prefer to enlist instead of join an officer commissioning program. However, this coordination does not necessarily apply for high-quality applicants without a bachelor's degree, even if they have the potential to be successful in a precommissioning officer program. Therefore, a formal coordination process between enlisted recruiters and academy and ROTC programs could help ensure that qualified applicants from all demographic backgrounds have the opportunity to become an officer.

Improve Congressional Academy Nominations

In addition to meeting the minimum eligibility requirements, applicants to the DoD Service academies must secure a nomination from a member of Congress, the President, or Vice President to apply.¹⁶ However, there was general agreement among the Service academy representatives who briefed the MLDC in October 2009 that available nomination slots are often not fully utilized. Furthermore, recent media reports have highlighted that lawmakers from areas with large racial and ethnic minority populations tend to rank near the bottom when it comes to making nominations for appointment to the academies (Witte, 2009). The Office of the Under Secretary of Defense, Personnel and Readiness, is currently engaging congressional members to improve their use of nominations. Thus, efforts to engage congressional members in the academy nomination process are ongoing. The goal of this recommendation is to both encourage Congress to improve their use of nominations as well as to ensure that any current OSD efforts to improve congressional nominations are sustained for the long term.

¹⁶ For USAFA, the nomination must come from a U.S. congress member, senator, or the Vice President of the United States (U.S. Air Force, 2009). For USMA, the nomination can be a Service-connected nomination or congressional nomination (U.S. Army, 2007). For USNA, the nomination must come from a member of Congress, the Vice President, or the President of the United States (U.S. Marine Corps, 2010). The Coast Guard Academy does not require a nomination.

Develop a Common Application for Service ROTC and Academy Programs

Currently, each Service academy and ROTC program requires a separate application. Therefore, young people who are interested in multiple schools or programs must apply separately, with sharing of applicant files occurring inconsistently. Also, students may not be aware of all of their options in terms of military commissioning programs. Therefore, the Commission recommends a joint or common application for Service ROTC and academy programs. Through this coordination, students could apply simultaneously to multiple programs, ensuring that they are exposed to all of their options for becoming officers.

Closely Examine the Prep School Admissions Process and Make Required Changes to Ensure That Accessions Align with the Needs of the Military

10

The Service academy preparatory schools originated as President Wilson expanded the U.S. Military Academy's (USMA) corps of cadets in 1916, authorizing 180 slots for prior enlisted personnel (Malstrom, 2009). The reality at the time, however, was that few enlisted personnel would be capable of transitioning directly to a Service academy without additional academic preparation. Therefore, the idea of Service academy prep schools (for both the Army and the Navy) came about as a way to meet this need. Though there are also private military prep schools with programs designed to prepare prospective Service academy appointees, most of the cadets who reach Service academies via the prep school route attend the U.S. Military Academy Preparatory School (USMAPS), the Naval Academy Preparatory School (NAPS), or the U.S. Air Force Academy (USAFA) Preparatory School. The Coast Guard Academy (CGA) does not have its own prep school. Prior to 2009, the CGA sent some prospective cadets to NAPS. Since 2009, however, the CGA uses only private programs to serve the prep school function, as the private programs were found to be more cost-effective than NAPS. The modern purpose of the prep schools still includes their original mission of additional preparation for prior enlisted personnel, but has been generalized to also offer opportunities for civilian applicants.

20

Based on data provided by the Services, the prep schools are currently an important source of racial and ethnic minority enrollment at the Service academies. However, study of prep school records suggests that there is a large focus on developing athletes to enter into the academies. Of recent classes, approximately 35–40 percent of each of the prep schools consisted of recruited athletes. Although physical fitness is an important characteristic for military officers, the Commission had some concern that there may be too much of a focus on the preparation of athletes for the Service academies over individuals with other skills that may be more beneficial to the current and future needs of the military. Therefore, the Commission recommends that DoD have the prep schools closely examine their admissions processes and make any required changes to ensure that accessions align with the needs of the future military workforce.

30

Chapter Seven

BRANCHING AND ASSIGNMENTS

After joining the military, the next stage of the personnel life cycle is the particular career field and related assignments each servicemember fulfills during his or her time in the military. Together, these can affect potential promotion opportunities to higher ranks. However, due to both structural and perceptual barriers, there are potential demographic differences in career field preferences and command assignment opportunities that influence the future demographic diversity of senior military leadership. This chapter describes those barriers and how they can be addressed through policy changes.

10 Career Fields, Key Assignments, and Demographic Diversity

As a first step in examining the role of career fields and assignments in senior military leadership diversity, the Commission explored the extent to which specific career fields and assignments are related to advancing to senior leader ranks and the extent to which racial and ethnic minorities and women may be underrepresented in those key career fields and assignments. It used common AC and RC datasets for these analyses provided by DMDC. The data presented in this section are from December 2008 for the AC and June 2010 for the RC. Data on the Coast Guard are not included in the analyses because DMDC personnel data for the Coast Guard were not available.

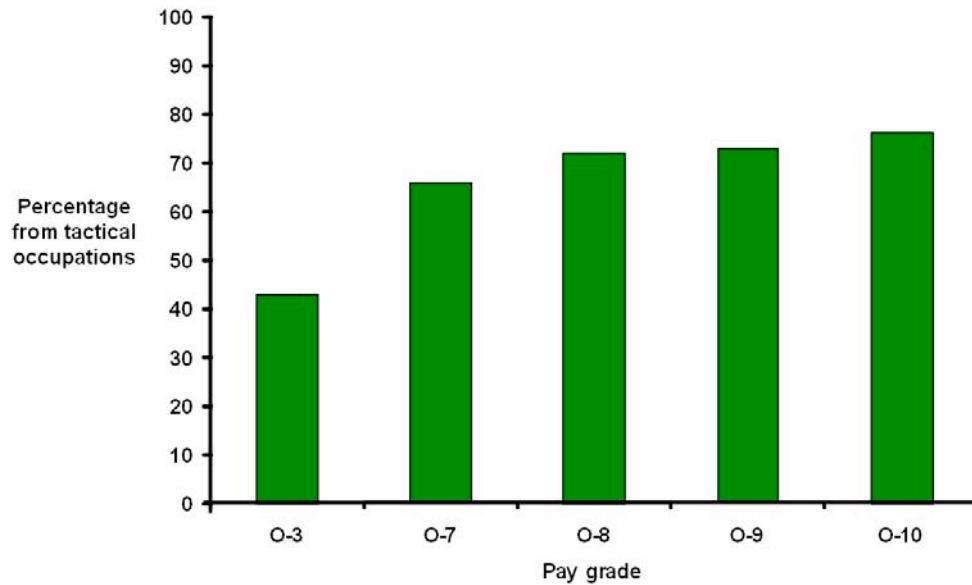
Enlisted Career Fields

20 Based on recent data, it appears that functional support and administration occupations are most closely aligned with membership in senior enlisted ranks in the AC. However, racial and ethnic minorities and women were not underrepresented in functional support and administrative occupations and were not overrepresented in those occupations currently aligned with junior enlisted pay grades, such as services and supplies. Thus, for the enlisted corps, there is no evidence that career fields play any significant role in the underrepresentation of racial and ethnic minorities and women in senior leadership ranks within the AC. Given these results, the Commission did not pursue an examination of potential enlisted demographic differences in the RC.

Officer Career Fields

30 For both the AC and RC officer corps, data indicate that flag/general officers were, in the periods under consideration, disproportionately drawn from tactical (combat) career fields. As Figure 7.1 shows, AC officers with tactical backgrounds tended to increasingly populate the higher levels of military leadership.

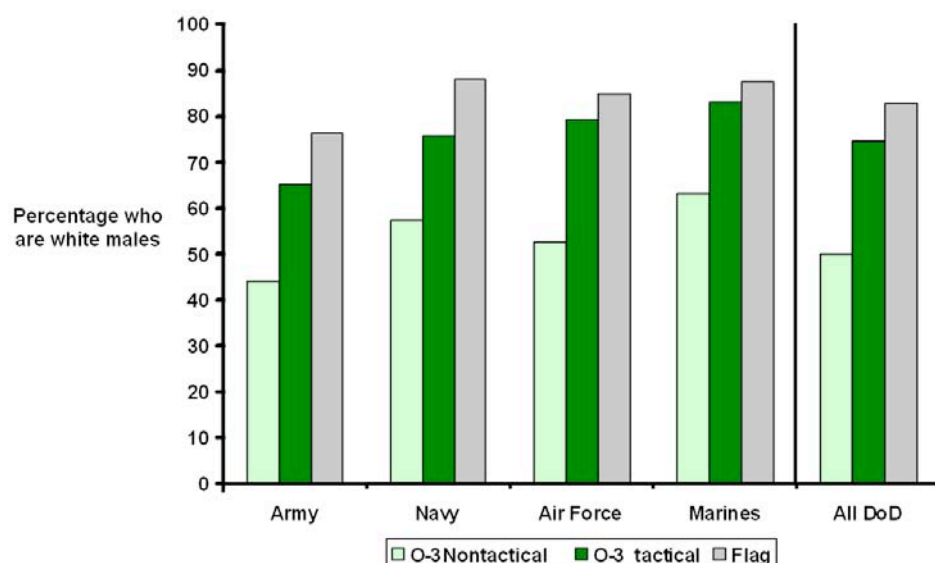
Figure 7.1. Percentage of AC Officers in Tactical Occupations, December 2008



SOURCE: Defense Manpower Data Center, 2009.

Furthermore, compared with other occupations, tactical occupations tend to have higher concentrations of white men. For example, Figure 7.2 shows the percentage of tactical and nontactical AC officers in pay grade O-3 who were white males. (For reference, it also shows the percentage of white males among all flag/general officers.) Even at the O-3 level, 75 percent of all officers in tactical occupations were white males, compared with 50 percent of the officers in nontactical occupations. A similar pattern was also seen in the RC.

Figure 7.2. Percentage of AC White Males in Nontactical and Tactical Occupations, December 2008, by Service



SOURCE: Defense Manpower Data Center, 2009.

Of course, the demographics of recent flag officers depend on the demographics of their own cohorts and not on the demographics of officers recently at the O-3 level. Nonetheless, Figure 7.2 demonstrates that the tendency of tactical occupations to contain higher fractions of white males persists.¹⁷ Thus, as long as tactical occupations continue to be associated with advancement to higher officer grades, and as long as these tactical occupations continue to be predominantly composed of white males, there is likely to be limited improvement in the demographic diversity of flag/general officers.

Key Assignments

The demographic diversity of the officer corps is greatly affected by which career fields and specialties officers enter. However, the types of assignments that officers choose or are given once they enter their career fields can also affect the demographic diversity of the officer corps. In general, this is not a factor for the enlisted corps, so the Commission chose to focus specifically on key assignments for officers.

The Commission defined key assignments as those assignments that are recognized to be especially demanding, have high visibility, and provide competitive advantage for advancement. Although none of the Services has “a checklist of assignments required for promotion from one grade to the next,” each Service branch/community/career field has “a notional career path comprising work and educational assignments that will make a due-course officer effective and

¹⁷ According to information provided to the Commission by the Coast Guard, a majority of tactical (i.e., mission execution) positions are currently filled by white male officers (about 71 percent). However, the same can be said of nontactical (i.e., mission support) positions, which are largely held by white male officers (about 70 percent).

credible” (Schirmer et al., 2006, p. 32). Based on the experiences of the commissioners and presentations from the Services, these assignments include holding leadership and staff assignments during one’s early career, holding command assignments, meeting certain educational milestones (e.g., advanced academic degrees, attending in-residence Professional Military Education, particularly war colleges), and holding executive officer or assistant positions to current flag/general officers. In addition, current law stipulates that flag/general officers must have held a joint command position.

10 In general, the Services do not collect any systematic data on demographic differences in the key assignments described above. However, for both the AC and the RC, several of the Services do maintain some data on command assignments. Examining the AC O-5 and O-6 command selection/screening processes for the command selection boards in the Army, the Marine Corps, and the Navy¹⁸ revealed that differences in O-5 and O-6 command selection rates by race, ethnicity, and gender were not the result of a clear bias for or against any particular group but that a vast majority of personnel (i.e., at least 80 percent) selected for O-5 or O-6 command during the period under review were white men. Similarly, RC data showed that, across all the Services, the majority of command billets in the RC were filled by white men.

20 These findings also suggest that racial and ethnic minority and female representation in recent cohorts of command selectees was low because racial and ethnic minorities and women were not highly represented in the candidate pools for command assignments. The lower representation of racial and ethnic minorities and women in candidate pools for command assignments may be due to race, ethnicity, and gender differences in accessions, branching, continuation, previous key assignments, and previous promotion rates prior to command.

Barriers to Entering Tactical Career Fields and Serving in Key Assignments

For racial and ethnic minorities and women, barriers to entering tactical career fields and serving in key assignments can affect their ability to reach the senior leadership ranks, particularly in the officer corps. This section describes two types of barriers that currently exist—structural barriers and perceptual barriers.

Structural Barriers

30 The Commission identified two structural barriers related to tactical career fields and key assignments—one for women and one for racial and ethnic minorities. The barrier for female officers is created by the collection of DoD and Service assignment policies known as the *combat exclusion policies*. These policies work at two levels. First, they explicitly prohibit women from serving in certain tactical career fields, such as infantry in the Army. Second, within the career fields that are open to women, the policies may keep women from getting key assignment because they prohibit women from being assigned to units that are likely to be involved in direct offensive ground combat (Harrell & Miller, 1997; Segal & Segal, 2004). Specifically, given the female servicemember is trained in an occupation, the assignment policy

¹⁸ Three of the Services provided AC command selection outcomes by race, ethnicity, and gender. Specifically, the MLDC was able to compare outcomes of the O-5 and O-6 command selection/screening processes for the command selection boards, by fiscal year, in FY2006–FY2010 for the Army, FY2007–FY2009 for the Marine Corps, and FY2007–FY2009 for the Navy aviation community and the Navy surface warfare officer (SWO) community.

determines to which unit that servicemember can be assigned to perform her trained job. Thus, the assignment policy does not curtail what women can do, but only the units to which women can be assigned.

These combat policies are most restrictive in the Army and Marine Corps. Based on calculations from 2004, women can serve in only 91 percent of Army and 92 percent of Marine Corps occupations, compared with 99 percent of Air Force occupations and 94 percent of Navy occupations (Segal & Segal, 2004). The percentage of Navy occupations has likely increased since these data were reported, given that in early 2010, the Secretary of Defense lifted the ban barring female officers from serving on submarines (Peck, 2010). All occupations in the Coast Guard have been open to women since 1978 (U.S. Coast Guard, n.d.).

The barrier for racial and ethnic minority officers is created by the interaction of two patterns related to accession source. First, nonwhite officers are less likely than white officers to commission via the Service academies. Second, the Army and the Air Force allocate a larger portion of tactical slots to their Service academies compared with other officer commissioning sources. Therefore, in these Services, commissioning via a Service academy provides an advantage in terms of securing assignment to a tactical career field.

Finally, the structural barriers that keep racial and ethnic minorities and women from entering tactical career fields also function as barriers to obtaining command assignments. That is, the lower representation of racial and ethnic minorities and women in tactical career fields means that they have fewer opportunities for command.

Perceptual Barriers

Although there are likely perceptual barriers for women, the majority of prior research has focused on perceptual barriers for racial and ethnic minority men. In particular, evidence suggests that more white men than minority men prefer tactical career fields in the Army (Lim et al., 2009) and the Air Force (Haygood & Morris, 2009) and that more white men than minority men enter special operations forces (SOF) in the Army, the Navy, and the Air Force (Kirby et al., 2000). These findings persist even after controlling for such factors as rankings on merit-based lists for initial branching.¹⁹

There are several potential reasons for the difference in preferences. For example, research has found that racial and ethnic minorities tend to prefer military career fields that they believe will provide skills (e.g., engineering skills) that will readily transfer to the civilian sector (e.g., Kirby et al., 2000). Generally, these skills are more likely to be found in nontactical occupations. Additionally, research suggests that racial and ethnic minority communities do not have the same level of knowledge about or support for certain career fields as white communities. For example, Kirby et al. (2000) found that, compared with racial and ethnic minorities, more of the white participants they interviewed knew about SOF, such as the Navy SEALs, when they were

¹⁹ Most of the Services' officer commissioning sources have rankings of cadets/midshipmen in terms of "merit-based" factors in order to make initial branching and assignment decisions. For example, Army Reserve Officers Training Corps (ROTC) cadets are put on an Order of Merit List (OML) based on a weighted composite of academic grade point average, leadership performance and skills, and physical fitness qualifications (Lim et al., 2009). Although the Services use different strategies when using the merit-based rankings, cadets/midshipmen who rank higher on the list generally receive earlier consideration in terms of career field preferences than cadets/midshipmen who rank lower on the list.

children. The study also found that some racial and ethnic minorities perceive that people in certain military occupational specialties hold racist attitudes. For example, some of the racial and ethnic minority servicemembers they interviewed commented that Army Green Berets and Rangers were believed by many to be white organizations with racist attitudes. Finally, anecdotal accounts suggest that identification with certain career fields may be lacking due to the absence of successful racial and ethnic minority role models in those career fields.

There are also potential perceptual barriers keeping racial and ethnic minorities and women from obtaining key assignments, such as command. In particular, racial and ethnic minorities and women may lack sufficient knowledge about key assignment opportunities. That is, racial and ethnic minorities and women may not receive the same career counseling or mentoring about key assignments as their white male counterparts. If this is the case, they would be more likely to miss career enhancing assignment opportunities.

The Services Should Optimize the Ability of Servicemembers to Make Informed Career Choices from Accession to Retirement—with Special Emphasis on Mentoring

Recommendation 8—

The Services should ensure that their career development programs and resources enhance servicemembers' knowledge of career choices, including Reserve Component opportunities, to optimize the ability of servicemembers to make informed career choices from accession to retirement.

- ***a. Mentoring and career counseling efforts shall start prior to the initial career field decision point and continue throughout the servicemember's career.***
- ***b. Mentoring programs shall follow effective practices and employ an active line of communication between protégé and mentor.***

Currently, the Services provide a variety of career development resources, including formal mentoring programs, career counseling events held at individual installations, and websites that provide links to career development information such as career guides, contact information for career counselors and/or mentors, and information about enlisted-to-officer programs. However, there is currently no available data on the effectiveness of these programs and resources.

Additionally, research shows that mentored individuals tend to have higher compensation, more promotions, greater career satisfaction, greater expectations for advancement, more career commitment, and higher job satisfaction than nonmentored individuals (Allen, et al., 2004). For example, the autobiography of General Frank E. Peterson describes the importance of mentoring to his success. Peterson describes how, in 1950, as a young cadet, he was having a particularly difficult time with an instructor and was seriously contemplating dropping out of the Naval Aviation Cadet Program. However, he then encountered something he considered “an absolute miracle.” He saw “a tall black Army Air Corps captain.” He wrote:

[The captain] was Dan “Chappie” James, . . . holding forth at the Sugar Bowl on one of his trips home. I was feeling pretty down, and we talked for about two

hours. I told him about the hard times, the racism, the possibility of never making it because of that. I laid it all out there, including the fact that the black guy just in front of me had been wiped out. I felt that “they” were simply waiting to wipe me out, too. . . . Chappie stayed so long that he had to cancel his civilian flight home. He could’ve run. He didn’t. He stayed there and listened. He didn’t say awful lot at first, except that I could make it if I wanted it badly enough. . . . I looked at him and somehow felt new resolve. I mean, here was a living example that it could be done. I had a role model now. He patted me on the shoulder, then he said it again: “Just don’t give up.” That audience with Chappie helped get me through.

(Peterson & Phelps, 1998)

Young Petersen became the first black Marine Corps aviator and retired from the Marine Corps as a Lieutenant General.

Based on this evidence about the potential benefits of mentoring, the Commission assumes that servicemembers who receive high-quality mentoring relationships from their Services will be able to make more informed career decisions. This ability is particularly important for minority male servicemembers, who may not choose tactical career fields partly because of a lack of knowledge about the potential benefits of entering such career fields.

Mentoring and Career Counseling Efforts Shall Start Prior to the Initial Career Field Decision Point and Continue Throughout the Servicemember’s Career

The Commission found that the Services value mentoring relationships that benefit both ends of the relationship: Protégés gain from the experience and knowledge of their mentors, and mentors gain a sense of satisfaction and pride from helping to develop the careers of junior individuals. Like many organizations, the Services provide mentoring to inform servicemembers of their career options and to help them develop professionally and personally. However, the Services did not indicate a particular focus on mentoring prior to initial career path decisions. Consistent with this, a survey conducted by the MLDC with a small sample of AC servicemembers revealed that, although there were not strong opinions about these career development resources and the assignment process, servicemembers reported that there was a lack of information about the career process given to them early in their careers. Given that officers in tactical career paths are significantly more likely to be promoted into flag/general officer positions, newly commissioning officers should be able to make initial career field decisions with full knowledge of these issues.

Mentoring can also have particular benefits for the RC. First, in order to retain qualified and successful servicemembers, mentoring can help inform exiting active-duty members about the opportunities available in the RC. Additionally, the RC has its own constraints and issues, particularly for servicemembers that have transitioned from active duty. These include knowledge of the force structure, promotion system, and the

When I was at the War College in 1975 to 1976, thanks to General Becton, I was supposed to go to the Army War College, but because he was sitting on the board for the National War College and he plucked me off and threw me into National War College, and I thank you for that again, Julius. I thank you many times.

—The Honorable Colin Powell, remarks to the MLDC regarding how the MLDC’s Vice-Chairman, General Julius Becton, ensured he took the correct career path, 2010

geographic distribution of billets that could affect career decisions. Therefore, the MLDC recommends that the Services ensure that their mentoring efforts start prior to the initial career decision point and continue throughout the career life cycle for both the AC and RC.

Mentoring Programs Shall Follow Effective Practices and Employ an Active Line of Communication Between Protégé and Mentor

Mentoring can play an essential part in career development, but mentoring can also backfire without a solid understanding of what makes mentoring relationships successful. Descriptions of the Services' current mentoring programs and practices indicate that the Services are making extensive efforts to assist their members in their career development. However, there is very little information about the effectiveness of these efforts, either overall or for specific demographic groups.

Research on mentoring has shown that effective mentoring relationships and programs are characterized by practices that include the establishment of clear objectives, allowing mentees and mentors to establish multiple mentoring relationships, providing high-quality training for both mentors and mentees, and if relevant to the mentoring program, matching mentors and mentees based on multiple criteria that align with the goals of the mentoring program (Allen et al. 2006; Finkelstein & Poteet, 2007). These characteristics represent effective practices that can be adopted by the Services. In addition, mentoring programs should make sure to include continuous active lines of communication between mentors and mentees. This is particularly critical in the RC given that servicemembers only meet a couple times a year with their unit.

Finally, the Services should evaluate the outcomes of their mentoring programs against predetermined goals and criteria. The Services can do this by using surveys, interviews, and/or focus groups to gather information about mentoring experiences. The Services should also track the careers of individuals who use their mentoring programs and tools over time to assess the extent to which mentoring has helped individuals throughout key career points.

DoD and the Services Should Eliminate Combat Exclusion Policies for Women

Recommendation 9—

DoD and the Services should eliminate the “combat exclusion policies” for women, including the removal of barriers and inconsistencies, to create a level playing field for all qualified servicemembers. The commission recommends a time-phased approach:

- ***a. Women in career fields/specialties currently open to them should be immediately able to be assigned to any unit that requires that career field/specialty, consistent with the current operational environment.***
- ***b. DoD and the Services should take deliberate steps in a phased approach to open additional career fields and units involved in “direct ground combat” to qualified women.***
- ***c. DoD and the Services should report to Congress the process and timeline for removing barriers that inhibit women from achieving senior leadership positions.***

The Commission recommends that DoD and Services remove a structural barrier for women. The current DoD and Service policies barring women from direct ground combat career fields and assignments have been in place since the early 1990s. As previously described, these policies constitute a structural barrier that keeps women from entering the tactical career fields associated with promotion to flag/general officer grades and serving in career enhancing assignments. The Commission considered four strands of argument related to rescinding the policies.

First, the Commission addressed arguments related to readiness and mission capability. One frequently-cited argument in favor of the current policy is that having women serving in direct combat will hamper mission effectiveness by hurting unit morale and cohesion. Comparable arguments were made with respect to racial integration, but were ultimately never borne out. Similarly, to date, there has been little evidence that the integration of women into previously-closed units or occupations has had a negative impact on important mission-related performance factors, like unit cohesion (e.g., Defense Department Advisory Committee on Women in the Services, 2009; Harrell & Miller, 1997; McSally, 2007). Furthermore, a study by the Defense Department Advisory Committee on Women in the Services (2009) actually found that a majority of focus group participants felt that women serving in combat in Iraq and Afghanistan have had a positive impact on mission accomplishment. Additionally, panel members on this topic at an MLDC meeting cited the need to bring to bear all talent: The blanket restriction for women limits the ability of commanders in theater to pick the most capable person for the job. For example, Colonel McSally commented that

First of all, with regard to women in Combat Arms, I don't think you will see a change because I don't think our women want it to change, okay? There are certain demands of officers in a Combat Arms environment that our women see, recognize, appreciate, and say, I couldn't do that -- in fact, I don't want to do that because I don't think it best prepares me for success if I am trying to do those things against the male population at Lieutenant, Captain, Major, and Lieutenant Colonel.

— General James T. Conway, remarks to the MLDC, 2010

If you want to have the best fighting force, why would you exclude 51 percent of your population from even being considered for any particular job? I've seen recent statistics that say 75 percent of our nation's youth between the ages of 17 and 25 are not even eligible to be in the military based on whether it's mental, medical, or other—criminal issues or whatever. So we just have a very small pool to pick from. So if we're trying to have the most ready force, why would we just exclude 51 percent of the population from even competing? (McSally, 2010)

Second, and relatedly, the Commission considered whether the policies are still appropriate given the changes in warfare and doctrine that have occurred over the last decade. DoD and Service policies that bar women from gaining entry to certain combat-related career fields, specialties, units, and assignments are based on standards of conventional warfare, with well-defined, linear battlefields. However, the current conflicts in Iraq and Afghanistan have been anything but conventional. As a result, some of the military women deployed to Iraq and Afghanistan have already been engaged in activities that would be considered combat-related, including being collocated with combat units and engaging in direct combat for self-defense (see

Defense Department Advisory Committee on Women in the Services, 2009; Harrell et al., 2007). Thus, the combat exclusion policies do not reflect the current operational environment.

Third, the Commission addressed arguments related to discrimination and fairness. For many Commissioners, the policies are fundamentally discriminatory because they stipulate that assignment decisions should be based solely on gender, without regard to capability or qualifications. For example, Commissioner O'Donnell stated:

I can't even find the right word about how strongly I feel about this. This is about discrimination of the first order. This is 2010, and as we look at outyears for war, it will probably be much more electronic than it is now. We have things from Creech Air Force Base fighting unmanned vehicles in Afghanistan right now. So we cannot look at the war that was fought in Vietnam and compare that to today or future wars. It's going to be totally different. This has to do with every American citizen being able to be considered for anything that they are qualified to do. It's about discrimination at its very basics. (O'Donnell, 2010)

Finally, the Commission considered whether there might be unanticipated effects from rescinding the combat exclusion policies, especially with regard to opening career fields. In particular, it is unknown what type of impact such a policy change would have on enlisted recruiting. If young women perceive the opening of combat career fields to mean that they will be required to enter these occupations, rather than being allowed to volunteer for them, female propensity to enlist may drop, and the Services may find it difficult to achieve their recruiting missions.

Based on these considerations, the Commission recommends that DoD and the Services should eliminate their combat exclusion policies for women, including the removal of barriers and inconsistencies, to create a level playing field for all qualified servicemembers. This should be done using a phased approach so that all potential issues with how to best implement new policies can be thought through. This recommendation was approved by a majority, but not all, of the commissioners. Due to concerns regarding the potential impact of the policy's removal on unit effectiveness and potential issues of implementation, a small number of commissioners did not approve recommending removal of the policy immediately, but instead favored further study. On the other hand, a small number of other commissioners believed the above recommendation is not strong enough. They would have preferred a more forceful recommendation to immediately eliminate the policy.

The Commission proposes three strategies for implementing this recommendation, as described below.

Women in Career Fields/Specialties Currently Open to Them Should Be Immediately Able to Be Assigned to Any Unit That Requires That Career Field/Specialty, Consistent with the Current Operational Environment

As discussed previously, current DoD and Service assignment policies prohibit women from being assigned to units that may be involved in direct ground combat. Again, this means that, for a given occupation, the policies determine to which units a woman may be assigned to do her trained job. However, given the nature of the wars in Iraq and Afghanistan, women are currently engaged in direct combat, even when it is not part of their formally assigned role. Two key

features of the policies have created the disconnect between the roles women may be formally assigned (policy) and the roles they may end up filling while deployed (practice).

First, many of the terms used in the policies have either lost or changed meaning so that concepts such as “enemy,” “exposed to hostile fire,” “forward,” and “well-forward” are no longer useful when determining which units should be closed to women. The enemy is no longer clearly and consistently identifiable, and all units are essentially exposed to hostile fire. Additionally, the spatial concepts of forward and well-forward are inappropriate to convey the complexity of operations such as those in Iraq and Afghanistan.

10 Second, once a female servicemember has been assigned to a unit, the assignment policy does not prescribe what duties she can do or the other units with which she may interact. As a result, women are performing in combat roles. For example, local commanders have the authority to use their personnel as they see fit to fulfill the unit mission. Thus, Harrell et al. (2007) found examples of female servicemembers trained as cooks having received the Combat Action Badge in Iraq, likely because contractor cooks obviated the need for U.S. soldiers to cook. Instead these women, along with their male colleagues trained as cooks, were performing other duties such as guard duty that placed them in greater danger.

20 The Commissioners were in near unanimous agreement that this aspect of the combat exclusion policies should be eliminated immediately because they view it as obsolete given current practices for employing women in the wars in Iraq and Afghanistan. As such, the assignment policies constitute an *unnecessary* barrier to women’s advancement.

DoD and the Services Should Take Deliberate Steps in a Phased Approach to Open Additional Career Fields and Units Involved in “Direct Ground Combat” to Qualified Women

As discussed previously, tactical career fields are associated with advancing to flag/general officer grades. Therefore, as long as the combat exclusion policy bars women from entering tactical career fields and units, women will be at a disadvantage compared with men in their career advancement potential. The Commission is not arguing that women cannot reach senior leadership levels without being in tactical career fields or that a large number of women will choose to enter tactical career fields if given the opportunity. However, the Commission believes
30 that the existing policy is a structural barrier that if removed can help improve the career advancement potential of qualified women and ultimately, the demographic diversity of senior leaders. Therefore, the Commission recommends that DoD and the Services take steps to open all career fields and units to all women who are qualified.

DoD and the Services Should Report to Congress the Process and Timeline for Removing Barriers That Inhibit Women from Achieving Senior Leadership Positions

Although there are no laws that specifically restrict women from being assigned to any career field, specialty, assignments, or unit, law does require the Secretary of Defense to report to Congress about changes to the current combat exclusion policy. Therefore, the Commission recommends that DoD and the Services report to Congress the process and timelines for
40 developing and implementing new policies based on recent combat experience. To be clear, this recommendation means that DoD and the Services will have to first determine *how* to develop and implement new policies, not *whether* to do so.

Chapter Eight PROMOTION

The next stage of the personnel life cycle is selecting servicemembers for promotion. In the military's closed personnel system, the demographic diversity of leadership depends largely on the relative career progression rates of members of each demographic group: If racial and ethnic minorities and women advance at lower rates than white men, they will not be represented in the top leadership positions. Thus, potential barriers to promotion and resulting demographic differences in promotion rates can affect the future demographic diversity of senior military leadership.

10 Typically, there are more servicemembers eligible for promotion than can be selected, so selection depends critically on identifying the best and most qualified. To understand how racial and ethnic minorities and women are currently faring in the military promotion process, the Commission asked the Services to provide data regarding average promotion rates spanning the last several years. Because there were no reliable data to assess demographic differences in promotion rates for the RC, the findings presented in this chapter represent only the AC.

Demographic Differences in Average Promotion Rates

Line Officer Promotion Rates

20 The Services were asked to first provide data on line officers, pay grades O-4 through O-6. Line officers are officers who serve in combat-related specialties, and they make up the majority of officers. Officers who are not line officers are less numerous in the Armed Forces, serving in noncombat specialties including chaplains, lawyers, supply officers, and medical officers. Also, comparing line officers controls for potential occupational differences that may influence promotion rates, such as being in a tactical career field.

In several cases, the data showed that promotion rates from O-4 through O-6 for several race and ethnicity minority groups were lower than the average. In particular,

- In all Services, black (Hispanic and non-Hispanic) officers' promotion rates were substantially lower than the pay grade-specific average promotion rates for their respective Services.
- Except in the Army, Hispanic officers' promotion rates were below the Service- and pay grade-specific averages. Across Services, Hispanic officers tended to have higher promotion rates than black (Hispanic and non-Hispanic) officers.
- Officers from other race and ethnicity groups (Asians, Pacific Islanders, American Indians, Alaska natives, and individuals reporting more than one race) in each Service had substantially lower-than-average promotion rates to O-5. In the Air Force and Coast Guard, their promotion rates to O-4 were also below average.
- Female officers in the Navy and the Coast Guard had substantially lower-than-average promotion rates to O-4 and O-5.

The Commission also examined demographic differences in flag/general officer promotion rates. However, the consideration of flag/general officer promotion rates requires an important caveat. The racial and ethnic minority and female representation in the eligible populations for promotion to O-7, O-8, and O-9 can be very small. In those circumstances, a single promotion can cause a minority promotion rate to change substantially. Therefore, flag/general officer promotion rates are only for descriptive reference. Overall, the data showed that when females have been promoted to O-7 and O-8, their promotion rates have roughly equaled the Service averages. This is also true of Asian/Pacific Islanders (except for promotions to O-8 in the Coast Guard). Although Hispanics have well-above average promotion rates to O-7 in the Marine Corps and the Coast Guard, the promotion rates of blacks (Hispanic and non-Hispanic) to this pay grade are below average for these Services. Finally, blacks (Hispanic and non-Hispanic) and Hispanics have experienced very low promotion rates to O-8 in the Army and the Marine Corps.

E-7 to E-9 Promotion Rates

The Commission also examined potential demographic differences in average promotion rates for AC senior noncommissioned officers (enlisted ranks E-7 through E-9). Overall, the data indicated there were a few cases, especially in the Marine Corps, in which advancement differed by race, ethnicity, and gender, but that below-average rates for minority noncommissioned officers are not the widespread problem they are for officers. The key findings were that:

- Black (Hispanic and non-Hispanic) Marines had substantially lower-than-average promotion rates to E-7, E-8, and E-9.
- Hispanic Marines had promotion rates to E-7 and E-8 that were somewhat lower than average.
- “Other” (Asians, Pacific Islanders, American Indians, Alaska natives, and individuals reporting more than one race) Airmen had a substantially lower-than-average promotion rate to E-9. “Other” Marines had a promotion rate to E-7 that was somewhat below average.
- Female Marines had a substantially lower-than-average promotion rate to E-9 but a higher-than-average promotion rate to E-7. Female soldiers had a slightly below-average promotion rates to E-8 and E-9.

Thus, data on recent AC promotion rates indicate that, overall, racial and ethnic minority officers have lower promotion rates than white officers for pay grades O-4 through O-6. With only a few exceptions—for example, Hispanic Army officers—this pattern appears to hold for all Services and race and ethnicity groups. However, the gender differences for officers and the gender and racial and ethnic differences for enlisted servicemembers are more varied across both Services and pay grades and thus do not signal the same widespread, persistent majority-minority gap.

Officer Promotion Process

It is hard to pin down any single reason or barrier for the lower promotion rates of racial and ethnic minorities and women in the military. Although the effects of other variables were not controlled for when analyzing the rates presented above, the current rates tend to be similar to past analyses that did control for factors other than race, ethnicity, or gender (see Hosek et al.,

2001). However, because below-average officer promotion rates appear to be a widespread issue across several Services (rather than just one Service as in the case of enlisted promotion rates), the Commission further explored the potential for perceptual barriers in institutional or individual bias in promotion selection boards, assignment histories, performance evaluations, and knowledge of the promotion process.

Promotion Selection Boards

10 Overall, the Commission found that the promotion board process appears to be designed to be institutionally fair and to mitigate the impact of potential bias on the part of any individual board member: Selections are made not by a single individual but by multi-member boards that are, to the extent possible, demographically representative of the pool of candidates. Furthermore, the guidance to these boards—in the form of precepts, instructions, or actual laws—requires that selections be made based on the needs of the Services and the best-and-fully-qualified criterion, without regard to race, ethnicity or gender.

Assignment Histories and Performance Evaluations

20 The Commission also explored the potential for unfairness in the inputs of the promotion process in terms of assignment histories and performance evaluations. For example, each functional community within each Service has a defined due-course career path describing the successive milestones that members need to achieve to be competitive for promotion to each rank. Because of the strict timing requirements of the military promotion system, deviations from the due-course path can negatively affect an officer's competitiveness in the selection process. Similarly, potential bias in the performance evaluations an officer receives can influence the officer's competitiveness in the selection process.

To examine the potential for unfairness in these inputs, the Commission looked at survey data from several different sources. Overall, the survey data regarding servicemembers' perceptions about the fairness of both assignment opportunities and performance evaluations generated ambiguous results. According to the 2009 Workplace and Equal Opportunity survey of Active-Duty Members (WEOA),²⁰ racial and ethnic minority servicemembers were more likely than whites to believe that race and ethnicity were a factor in both their assignments and their performance evaluations. In contrast, both the 2008 Status of Special Forces Survey (SOFS)²¹

²⁰ The survey targets active-duty members of the Army, Navy, Marine Corps, Air Force, and Coast Guard who had at least six months of service at the time the survey was first fielded and were below flag rank. For the 2009 WEOA, data were collected predominantly via the web in February, March, and April 2009, and completed surveys (defined as those with at least half the survey questions answered) were received from 26,167 eligible respondents. The resulting sample of respondents was 72 percent enlisted and 28 percent officers, and 84 percent DoD and 16 percent Coast Guard.

²¹ The SOFS of Active Duty Members is administered to DoD servicemembers three times a year; the Coast Guard does not participate in the SOFS. As with the WEOA, the target population is active-duty members who had completed at least six months of service and were below flag rank six months prior to data collection. Members of the National Guard and Reserve in active-duty programs were not eligible. The SOFS data used here were collected via the web between November 5 and December 19, 2008. A total of 10,435 eligible members returned usable surveys, again defined as those with at least half the questions answered. The final sample included 3,474 officers (33 percent), 6,303 enlisted members (61 percent), and 658 warrant officers (6 percent).

and an MLDC supplement to the DEOMI Organizational Climate Survey (DEOCS)²² indicated that white and nonwhite servicemembers had similar perceptions about the fairness of these two “inputs.” These two surveys did, however, find significant differences by gender; according to responses on both the SOFS and the DEOCS, women were less likely than men to agree that they received the assignments they needed to be competitive for promotion.

10 In addition, prior research by Hosek et al. (2001) examining differences in career progression for officers in the 1970s and 1980s found that a potential explanation for the lag in black officer career progression was that black officers were more likely to be given assignments that took them off the due-course career path. Although this research is dated, the findings are consistent with the commissioners’ more recent experience in their Services. Furthermore, although the 2001 study by Hosek et al. and an OSD report based on the study’s early findings (Gilroy et al., 1999) recommended that DoD do further research to determine whether black officers’ promotion rates were indeed hampered by recruiting- and EO-related deviations from the due-course career path, the Commission was unable to find any indication that this recommendation was ever implemented.

Knowledge of the Promotion Process

20 Finally, the Commission explored the extent to which servicemembers felt they had adequate knowledge of the promotion process. Overall, the Services reported using multiple approaches to educate their members about how to be successful in general and about the promotion system in particular. These approaches include formal seminars, formal and informal mentoring, and the establishment of websites that provide general and community-specific information about key career milestones and due-course career paths. However, the Commission also found that no Service is systematically evaluating the effectiveness of these tools—either overall or for different demographic groups.

Improve Transparency So That Servicemembers Understand Performance Expectations, Promotion Criteria, and Processes

Recommendation 10—

30 ***DoD, the Services, and the Chief, National Guard Bureau, must ensure that there is transparency throughout their promotion systems so that servicemembers may better understand performance expectations and promotion criteria and processes. To do this they***

²² The MLDC added several sets of questions to learn about servicemembers’ perceptions of various aspects of the promotion system and its questions were fielded during March 2010. During this period, a total of 2,196 servicemembers completed the survey, with 2,004 respondents providing usable information. The sample includes AC and RC, but RC sample is too small to allow for separate analysis by demo groups. Relevant shares of the final sample were: 87 percent enlisted personnel, 12 percent officers, and 1 percent warrant officers; 60 percent were white non-Hispanic. It is important to note that the DEOCS sample is much smaller than the WEOA and SOFS samples, and it was collected without using any particular sampling methodology. Therefore, it is less likely to be representative of the population of Servicemembers as a whole.

PREDECISIONAL DRAFT

From Representation to Inclusion: Diversity Leadership for the 21st-Century Military

- ***a. Must specify the knowledge, skills, abilities, and potential necessary to be an effective flag/general officer or senior noncommissioned officer.***
- ***b. Shall formalize the process and requirements for 3- and 4- star officer selection in DoD instruction 1320.4.***
- ***c. Shall educate and counsel all servicemembers on the importance of, and their responsibility for, a complete promotion board packet.***

10 This recommendation calls for making the promotion system as transparent as possible to ensure that all servicemembers have adequate and equal knowledge in their efforts to proactively manage their own careers. Although the Commission did not have data for the RC to assess demographic differences in promotion rates or perceptions of the fairness of their promotion process, these recommendations should also help improve promotion opportunities for RC servicemembers. To implement this recommendation, the Commission proposes three strategies, described below.

Specify the Knowledge, Skills, Abilities, and Potential Necessary to Be an Effective Flag/General Officer or Senior Noncommissioned Officer

20 Many have noted that future leaders in the officer corps will require a greater mix of knowledge, skills, and abilities in order to be effective in changing operational environments. This claim is supported by changes that have already occurred as a result of the Global War on Terror (GWOT) and by forecasts of needed competencies that have been laid out in reports such as the Quadrennial Defense Review (U.S. Department of Defense, 2010). For example, many of the forecasts suggest a greater need for foreign language, regional, and cultural expertise as well as improved expertise in cyber warfare. Although the demand for these skills is growing, in terms of career advancement, it is often risky for servicemembers to deviate from traditional career paths if they seek to reach the highest ranks of the military.

30 As discussed previously, research shows that the majority of flag/general officers are drawn from tactical occupations. Although there may be positions that “demand” an officer from a tactical occupation, there are many flag/general officer positions that likely do not require the knowledge, skills, and abilities of an officer in a tactical occupation. For example, based on the experiences of Commissioners, key leadership positions of combat support and combat service support organizations are slated for combat arms officers instead of officers that have spent their entire careers in combat support and combat service support positions. This tendency to slate key flag/general officer positions for those in tactical occupations limits the ability of officers in other occupations from filling key assignments that increase their likelihood for advancement to 3- and 4-star positions.

40 Therefore, the Commission recommends a change to a more flexible officer career management system that does not necessarily prioritize tactical occupations. A career management system based on specified knowledge, skills, and abilities could provide all officers—not just female and racial and ethnic minority officers—more flexibility in managing their careers than can a rigid, time-based or tactical occupation-prioritized career management system. A more flexible officer career managements system will also result in a senior leadership with knowledge, skills, and abilities that are consistent with the current and future warfighting environment. Finally, as an additional benefit, this recommendation can also increase promotion

opportunities for women and minorities by broadening the career fields that are considered for promotion to senior leadership.

Formalize the Process and Requirements for 3- and 4-Star Selection

- 10 The MLDC also recommends that the selection process for flag/general officers, from O-7 through O-10 be made transparent through its description and documentation in DoD Instruction 1320.4, which outlines the current promotion policy. The current DoD instruction contains some information on O-7 to O-8 and O-9 to O-10 promotions, but it lacks an overview of the entire process. A new instruction should be issued that provides a flow chart of the process and describes the roles played by the Service 4-stars, Service Chief and Secretary, the Joint Chiefs and the Chairman, and the Secretary of Defense.

Some of the changes instituted under Secretary Rumsfeld should be institutionalized through their inclusion in that policy statement, in particular those changes that required the Services to look deliberately at the long-term impact of each individual selection on others and to broaden the field of candidates to include nontraditional sources. Succession planning of this type will help sustain progress in achieving diversity in military leadership. The reforms also included a semi-annual briefing from each Service to the Secretary of Defense on its succession plan and submission of slates of candidates, not just a single name, for 3- and 4-star positions.

Educate and Counsel All Servicemembers on the Importance of, and Their Responsibility for, a Complete Promotion Board Packet

- 20 As part of their educational efforts, the Services already provide officers with some instruction on how to construct a complete promotion packet in preparation for being evaluated by the promotion board. With this recommendation, the MLDC calls out this fundamental step as necessary for ensuring that the promotion system works minimally well for all officers. This is a simple procedural step that, if not done properly, could decrease a servicemember's chances to promote. The Services should ensure that education on doing this is effective and reaches all servicemembers equally.

In addition to recommending improvements to the transparency of the promotion process, the MLDC also makes the below recommendation to address potential unfairness in the inputs (assignment histories and performance evaluations) of the promotion process.

- 30 **Ensure That Promotion Board Precepts Provide Guidance on How to Value Service-Directed Special Assignments Outside Normal Career Paths**

Recommendation 11—

The Services shall ensure that promotion board precepts provide guidance regarding Service-directed special assignments outside normal career paths and/or fields. As appropriate, senior raters' evaluations shall acknowledge when a servicemember has deviated from the due-course path at the specific request of his/her leadership.

Although the Commission was not able to conduct a systematic analysis of officer assignment patterns across the Services, there is some indication that officers who are members of

demographically underrepresented groups are disproportionately diverted from their due-course career paths to fill recruiting and EO assignments, thus making them less competitive for promotion. This result is mainly supported by the Commissioners' collective wisdom and a study by Hosek, et al. (2001). Acknowledging that this pattern has not been confirmed, the Commission felt strongly that officers should not be penalized for helping their Services execute their diversity efforts—it is not only unfair to the officers, but self-defeating to the Services' demographic diversity goals. Therefore, the Commission recommends that the Services ensure that promotion board precepts provide guidance to board members on how to value service-directed assignments that take officers off the due course and that performance evaluations should, when possible, note when a candidate has taken an unusual assignment at the request of his or her leadership.

Although the main motivation for this recommendation was to eliminate institutional bias that might contribute to the promotion gap between racial and ethnic minority and white officers, the wording is intentionally general, referring to any Service-directed assignment that falls outside the community norm. This wording reflects the Commission's position that diversity encompasses many kinds of human difference and contributes to mission capability. In particular, diversity of experience, potentially reflected in deviations from the due-course path, is expected to be of extra value in the context of changing war-fighting environments and the development of new doctrine. Indeed, the current conflicts in Iraq and Afghanistan may already be changing the Services' ideas about what is considered a "key" assignment. The recent *Quadrennial Defense Review Report* (U.S. Department of Defense, 2010), for example, highlights the need to build expertise in foreign language, regional, and cultural skills. Both changes mean that promotion boards must be open to nontraditional assignment histories until due-course career paths need to be reevaluated.

Chapter Nine RETENTION

Because career progression depends on the ability to promote as well as retain servicemembers, it is important to examine whether there are demographic differences in who chooses to remain in and who chooses to separate from military service, as well as potential barriers that influence demographic differences in retention.

10 To calculate the retention behavior of different demographic groups for the AC, the Commission drew upon records from FY2000–FY2008 from the Proxy Personnel Tempo (PERSTEMPO) files provided by DMDC and from information provided separately by the Coast Guard. For the RC, the MLDC drew upon records from FY2004–FY2009 from the Reserve Component Common Personnel Data System (RCCPDS) files provided by DMDC.²³ For the AC, the MLDC calculated reenlistment rates based on those servicemembers who are eligible (completed at least 17 months of service) both to voluntarily leave active-duty service and to reenlist.²⁴ Officer retention was based on continuation rates of officers which are calculated as the percentage of officers in the same Service observed at year t and again at year $t + 1$.²⁵ For the RC, retention for both enlisted servicemembers and officers was also calculated based on continuation rates.

Retention of Racial and Ethnic Minorities

Active Component Retention

20 Among AC enlisted servicemembers, the reenlistment rates of non-Hispanic blacks, Hispanics, and non-Hispanic Asian/Pacific Islanders were higher than those of whites and servicemembers who classify themselves as being of “other” race and ethnicity (American Indians, Alaska Natives, and individuals of more than one race). This pattern was consistent across all Services. However, the gap in reenlistment rates shrinks as time in Service increases.

30 For AC officers, on average, non-Hispanic black and Hispanic officers had cumulative continuation rates that were greater than or equal to whites’ rates at every year of service point. Specifically, after the fourth year of service, non-Hispanic blacks and Hispanics seem to have consistently higher rates of continuation than both whites and other race and ethnicity minority groups. The difference between non-Hispanic blacks, Hispanics, and whites then becomes more pronounced as years of service increase, until 20 years of service, when differences in retention begin to taper. The one exception to this trend was found in the Air Force, where non-Hispanic blacks consistently had lower continuation rates than whites until year 20 when the gap began to

²³ The data focus specifically on the Selected Reserve.

²⁴ By definition, the focus on reenlistment restricts the analysis to servicemembers who are eligible to both voluntarily leave active-duty service and to reenlist. For the purposes of the MLDC analysis, an “eligible” servicemember is one who has completed at least 17 months of service. The PERSTEMPO data does not indicate whether a servicemember is “eligible” in the sense that he or she meets their Service’s specific requirements to reenlist.

²⁵ These continuation rates do not distinguish between voluntary and involuntary separation.

close. Retention rates are more complicated for other race and ethnicity officer groups as the rates vary according to Service. On average though, non-Hispanic Asian/Pacific Islanders and others' (American Indians, Alaska Natives, and individuals of more than one race) rates were less than or equal to whites' rates. Thus, overall for both the AC enlisted and officer corps, racial/ethnic minorities were more or equally likely as whites to remain in service.

Reserve Component Retention

Among RC enlisted servicemembers, average continuation rates vary somewhat across Service components and years of service. However, overall, non-Hispanic Asian/Pacific Islanders and Hispanics had higher average continuation rates than whites. On the other hand, non-Hispanic blacks and in some Services, members of the "other" race and ethnicity category (American Indians, Alaska Natives, individuals of more than one race, and unknown) had significantly lower average continuation rates than whites. The lower continuation rates for non-Hispanic blacks and "others" were small though, ranging from only a 1- to 4- percentage-point difference.

Among officers in the RC, average continuation rates also varied somewhat across Service components and years of service. Overall, though, the continuation rates of racial/ethnic minorities were higher than or the same as whites' rates. The only exceptions to this pattern were non-Hispanic blacks in the Air Force Reserve, Marine Corps Reserve, and the Navy Reserve and non-Hispanic Asian/Pacific Islanders in the Coast Guard Reserve. Again, these differences in promotion rates were relatively small, ranging from only a 1- to 4-percentage-point difference. Thus, for the RC enlisted and officer corps, non-Hispanic blacks and in some cases the "other" race and ethnicity category and Hispanics had lower average continuation rates than whites. These differences were relatively small, however.

Retention of Women

Active Component Retention

Examining retention among AC enlisted servicemembers, the Commission found that, across all Services, women were less likely than men to remain in service. There are two notable exceptions: In the Air Force, women's reenlistment rates early on in their careers (17 months to six years of active service) were higher than men's during the mid-2000s. Similarly, men and women had very similar reenlistment rates earlier on in their careers in the Marine Corps. Similar to enlisted trends, women in all Services were less likely than men to be retained than men. During the first three years of service as an officer, men and women have similar continuation rates. However, by the time officers have completed their fourth year of service, differences in men and women's continuation rates begin to emerge and increase with years of service through roughly year 8 to year 12. By the tenth year of service, the percentage-point difference between male and female cumulative continuation rates is 10 in the Army, 15 in the Navy, and 20 in both the Marine Corps and the Air Force. In other words, although both men and women separate from the military as years of service increase, women separated at higher rates during this period. This difference in later years is likely the result of retention rather than promotion because it occurs before the first competitive promotion point. However, after 20 years of service, the gender gap begins to narrow again, with less than 5 percentage points

difference by 30 years of service. Thus, overall for both the AC enlisted and officer corps, women were less likely than men to remain in service.

Reserve Component Retention

Women enlisted in the RC, no matter what the Service, were less likely than men to remain. Furthermore, continuation rates for women generally remained below their male counterparts across years of service with only some increase in retention past 20 years of service.²⁶

10 The same holds true for women officers in the RC. In general, female continuation rates were lower than those for men until roughly 10 years of service. Female continuation rates then rise above their male counterparts between 10 and 20 years of service, and then drop back down below the rates of males after 20 years of service. Looking across years of service, female promotion rates are close to 10 percent lower than the rates for men. Thus, overall for both RC enlisted and officer corps, women were less likely than men to remain in service.

Gender Differences in Attitudes Toward Military Life

Although there were small differences in the retention rates of racial/ethnic minorities compared with whites, particularly in the RC, the largest gap in retention rates was between men and women. To explore why this gender gap in retention exists, the Commission examined potential differences in servicemembers' attitudes towards military life. Using data from the DMDC's November 2008 Status of Forces Survey (SOFS) (Defense Manpower Data Center, 2010c) the Commission assessed whether there were gender differences in satisfaction with military life, organizational commitment, and retention intentions.²⁷

20 In the AC, female enlisted servicemembers were as likely as their male counterparts in the Army, the Navy, the Marine Corps, and the Air Force both to be satisfied with the military way of life and to report that they intend to remain in the Armed Forces. Similarly, in the AC Navy, the Marine Corps, and the Air Force, female officers were as likely as their white male counterparts both to be satisfied with the military way of life and to report that they intend to remain in the Armed Forces. The exception was female Army officers, who reported being less satisfied with the military and less likely to stay. Consistent with the AC, female servicemembers in the RC were as likely as their male counterparts to report that they were both satisfied with the military way of life and intended to remain in the Armed Forces.

30 However, the results also showed that AC enlisted female soldiers and sailors were less likely than their male counterparts to report that they see the military as a career. Similarly, female AC officers were less likely than men to report that they saw the military as a career

²⁶ RC servicemembers may have had prior service time in the AC before joining the RC. Therefore, we use YOS Pay Entry Base Date (PEBD) as a measure of years of service and not years of service in the RC. This YOS PEBD metric measures years of service from the time a servicemember first joins the Armed Forces.

²⁷ The AC sample consisted of 37,494 servicemembers of the Army, the Navy, the Marine Corps, and the Air Force who had completed at least six months of service and were below flag rank six months prior to data collection. A total of 10,435 eligible members returned usable surveys (3,474 officers, 6,303 enlisted and 658 warrant officers). The RC sample included responses from the Army National Guard, the Army Reserve, the Navy Reserve, the Marine Corps Reserve, the Air National Guard, and the Air Force Reserve. The Coast Guard does not participate in the SOFS.

across all four DoD Services. The Commission did not have data on attitudes toward a military career for the RC.

Finally, the Commission gathered additional AC data on potential reasons for leaving military service through the Defense Equal Opportunity Management Institute's (DEOMI) Organizational Climate Survey (DEOCS).²⁸ Overall, the results from the DEOCS survey suggest that men and women cite similar reasons for leaving active duty. Both reported dissatisfaction with one's job, low pay, and lack of promotion or advancement opportunities as reasons for leaving. For male officers, the most frequently cited reason for leaving was failure to be promoted. Although there were fewer female officers to analyze, the high frequency of deployments and the desire to settle in one location were both listed as primary motivations for separating. Among male enlisted servicemembers, low pay and allowances was the most frequently cited reason for leaving, whereas for females, involuntary separation or ineligibility to reenlist was the most cited reason. Overall, though, none of the data that were collected points to a single reason, or single set of reasons, that can explain why women choose to leave military service at higher rates.

DACOWITS Should Expand Its Focus to Include an Explanation of the Gender Gap in Retention

Recommendation 12—

Where appropriate, DACOWITS should expand its current focus on retention to include an explanation of the gender gap in retention. As part of this renewed focus, DACOWITS should examine the effects of retention programs, such as the sabbatical programs currently offered by the Navy and the Coast Guard as well as any other innovative Service-specific approaches to retention. Findings and recommendations from this research should be presented to the Secretary of Defense.

Because the data do not clearly indicate why more women leave active-duty service earlier and at greater rates than men, the Commission recommends that the Defense Advisory Committee on Women in the Services (DACOWITS) expand its current focus on retention to include an

²⁸ Survey data were collected in two periods during February/March and May 2010. Although a total of 3,419 servicemembers completed the survey during this timeframe, the commission focused its attention on the 1,111 AC officers and enlisted servicemembers who reported that they were either leaving at the end of their current obligation (n = 592) or were not sure if they were leaving at the end of their current obligation (n = 591) and who had no missing data on race, ethnicity, gender, branch of Service, or rank.

Just over half of the servicemembers in the analytic sample were in the Army (616) and roughly one-third were in the Navy (315). The rest were spread throughout the Marine Corps (87), Coast Guard (70), and the Air Force (23). The distribution of respondents across Services reflects differences in how each of the Services use the DEOCS. It is typically not used by the Air Force, which relies on its own internal climate survey. Therefore, it is likely that the Air Force respondents in the sample were in a cross-Service command. In the Navy and the Marine Corps, unit participation in the DEOCS is required within 90 days of a new commander taking command and annually thereafter. The Army has its own climate survey that must be given to units within 90 days of a new commander taking command but the DEOCS is also available to commanders should they chose to use it. The Coast Guard requires administration of the DEOCS to each unit annually, so long as the unit contains at least 16 members. In general, DEOMI does not generate a DEOCS report unless at least 16 assigned personnel complete the survey.

explanation of the gender gap in retention. This examination should also include why women are less likely to view the military as a career and should help to identify existing policies and practices that may effectively decrease the retention gap between men and women.

The Commission also suggests that DACOWITS examine the effectiveness of a number of sabbatical programs. All Services currently offer a number of programs to enhance retention among its servicemembers. However, because the law prohibits the award of benefits to individuals solely based on gender, designing retention programs specifically aimed at women is challenging. Thus, retention outcomes related to two potentially effective, and legal, sabbatical programs should be more fully explored.

10 In FY2009, the Navy began to conduct a pilot program, the Career Intermission Pilot Program, to encourage retention through enhanced career flexibility.²⁹ The National Defense
Authorization Act allows twenty officers and twenty enlisted members in each Service to participate each year. The pilot program is open to both men and women. Through the program, officers and enlisted personnel are temporarily allowed to take time away from active duty for up to three years. Participants transition from the AC to the Individual Ready Reserve (IRR) during this period. Although those who participate in a career intermission do not receive active-duty pay or allowances, they do retain both medical and dental care benefits, as well as continued access to commissaries, exchanges, and Morale, Welfare, and Recreation (MWR) programs. Servicemembers incur an additional active-duty service obligation of two months for every
20 month in which they participate in this career intermission. Upon their return to active duty, participants return at the same rank they previously held.

Similarly, the Coast Guard has two sabbatical programs worthy of exploring. The first, Care for Newborn Children (CNC), and the second, Temporary Separation Program, are restricted to individuals who are at the rank of E-4/O-3 or above, and who have at least four years of active-duty service in the Coast Guard for CNC, and six years for the Temporary Separation Program. Both programs allow for up to a 24-month absence. The servicemember receives no pay or benefits while he or she is away. Upon return, individuals are reinstated at the same rank they left, assuming they meet physical fitness requirements and return within two years of leaving. Servicemembers may take advantage of one sabbatical, but not both.

30 The Commission suggests that DACOWITS examine the available data on these leave programs as well as other innovative Service programs and assess the impact of their expansion on female retention. The Commission also recommends that DACOWITS disseminate the findings and recommendations from their review to a wide audience, including the Secretary of Defense. This can help facilitate the use of successful retention practices that close the gender gap across Services.

²⁹ The Career Intermission Pilot Program was authorized by the 2009 National Defense Authorization Act for Fiscal Year 2009 (Pub. L. 110-417, §533, 2008).

Chapter Ten GOING BEYOND RACE, ETHNICITY, AND GENDER

Although the majority of Chapters Four through Nine have focused on increasing racial/ethnic and female representation within senior military leadership, the Commission also recommends tracking and improving other aspects of diversity within the military.

DoD and the Services Must Better Manage Personnel with Mission-Critical Skill Sets

Recommendation 13—

10 ***DoD and the Services must track regional and cultural expertise and relevant Reserve Component civilian expertise and continue to track language expertise upon military accession and throughout servicemembers' careers in order to better manage personnel with mission-critical skill sets.***

As noted in the recent *Quadrennial Defense Review Report* (U.S. Department of Defense, 2010), DoD needs to build regional, cultural, and foreign language expertise in order to prepare for future security needs. Given that no one can predict where the next conflict might be and what future regional expertise would be needed, it is prudent to track all language and cultural expertise, not just those specified by the current *Quadrennial Defense Review Report*, throughout servicemembers' careers.

20 In addition, certain RC civilian expertise can be a critical aid to missions. RC personnel may, via their civilian careers and other experiences, possess skills that are in high demand in the military. Some of these, like regional, cultural, and language expertise, are linked with demographic diversity. Others, like those related to science and technology, go beyond demographics. Therefore, the MLDC recommends that DoD and the Services codify and track civilian expertise that is deemed to be mission-critical.

30 A potential mechanism that can be used to track relevant RC civilian expertise is the Civilian Employment Information (CEI) program, which requires each member of the Ready Reserve to report employment status, employer's name and address, civilian job title, and years of experience in current civilian occupation. This is then stored in the Reserve Component Common Personnel Data System (RCCPDS). This program could be expanded to collect information on servicemember skills, including regional, cultural, language, and technical and scientific expertise. This information would then be available to commanders looking for serviced members with specific skill sets.

DoD Must Promote Structural Diversity, Total Force Integration, and Overall Retention

Recommendation 14—

To promote structural diversity, total force integration, and overall retention,

- ***a. DoD must improve the personnel and finance systems affecting transition between Active and Reserve Components and internal Reserve Component transition protocols.***
- ***b. The Assistant Secretary of Defense for Reserve Affairs and the Service Chiefs must assess how Reserve Component members can more effectively both gain operational experience and fulfill joint requirements within the constraints of their dual military/civilian lives and take action as appropriate.***

Improve the Personnel and Finance Systems Affecting Transition Between Active and Reserve Components and Internal Reserve Component Transition Protocols

Personnel leaving the AC are valuable resources for the RC, but the current process for transitioning ADL to RASL (Active Duty List to Reserve Active Status List) is lengthy and inefficient. On average, it takes one to six months to transition from the AC to the RC. In order to encourage servicemembers to join the RC rather than leaving the military, DoD needs to improve personnel and pay systems to facilitate the transition. For example, many steps in this process could be made more efficient via automation and better interfaces between personnel and finance (pay) systems across the Services. This includes automatic checks and balances wherever possible, real-time updated billet availability for assignment approvals and close to real-time transitions between personnel and pay systems across the services. Overall, streamlining this process will give the RC access to a broader talent pool by making it easier for a servicemember leaving the AC to join the RC.

Additionally, flexible service opportunities, such as seamless transition within the RC, have the potential to improve structural integration within the RC. The force structure constraints of one RC Service may limit promotion opportunities for some qualified servicemembers; however, another RC Service may not have the same constraints. By moving from one RC Service to another, servicemembers can take advantage of a wider variety of promotion opportunities.

Assess How RC Members Can More Effectively Gain Operational Experience and Fulfill Joint Requirements

Joint requirements are currently not aligned with the career path of traditional drilling reservists in the National Guard and the Reserve. Unlike their AC counterparts, RC servicemembers must meet their military educational and operational requirements without detriment or neglect to their civilian occupations. In addition, their window of opportunity to gain operational experience and credibility in their primary area of concentration and complete a joint assignment is particularly narrow; thus, achieving these two career milestones is often mutually exclusive. As a result, because they may lack joint qualifications or because they missed out on key operational assignments, many traditional RC servicemembers become uncompetitive for flag/general officer consideration.

To address this issue, the Commission recommends that DoD and the Services implement policy that provides flexible opportunities for officers to become joint-qualified to accommodate the constraints and requirements of the RC career path. In particular, the Services should provide mechanisms for officers to acquire both joint and operational experience, at the appropriate rank, and they should also provide enough education slots so that all qualified National Guard and Reserve servicemembers can complete their Joint Professional Military Education (JPME) and other education requirements in a timely fashion.

10 The purpose of this recommendation is to promote a highly qualified RC officer corps that can effectively compete for the highest ranks in the military. The Commission believes that this can add to the structural diversity of the upper ranks by ensuring that traditional reservists are qualified to be promoted to the highest ranks.

Conclusion

The chapters in this section outlined how specific stages of the military personnel life cycle and related structural and perceptual barriers influence the diversity of future military leaders. In an effort to improve the career progression of racial/ethnic minorities and women at each stage, the Commission made detailed recommendations to address key barriers.

20 Through partnerships and outreach programs, DoD and the Services can attempt to address current eligibility issues. Improved recruiting efforts focused on members of underrepresented demographic groups can then help improve the demographic diversity of initial accessions. Removal of combat exclusion policies for women and effective mentoring efforts can create opportunities for, and educate servicemembers regarding the importance of, career field selection and key assignments to career advancement. Ensuring that the promotion process is transparent and fair can then help ensure that members of all demographic groups have opportunities for advancement. At the same, further research to address the current gender gap in retention can ensure that there is a demographically diverse pool of candidates for promotion. Finally, going beyond demographics, other important diversity dimensions, such as language, cultural expertise, and structural diversity brought by the RC should be promoted within the Services. Taken together, the policy recommendations presented in this chapter can help develop and sustain a

30 talented military leadership that truly represents the face of America.

Section IV: Ensuring Continued Progress

Chapter Eleven MANAGING AND SUSTAINING DIVERSITY

So far, this report has suggested a new concept of diversity, proposed that diversity leadership should become a core competency in the Services, and recommended ways that barriers to career advancement can be reduced both for underrepresented groups and for people with desirable backgrounds and skill sets at all stages of a military career. These changes, however, cannot be managed and sustained without developing a stronger organizational structure and a system of accountability, monitoring, and enforcement to ensure continued progress toward greater diversity at all ranks of the military.

- 10 This chapter highlights the priorities in these areas and makes recommendations to address them. It begins with the need for a management system with oversight from a Chief Diversity Office who reports directly to the Secretary of Defense. It then identifies the need for strategic diversity planning, new policies, and metrics for measuring progress across the Services and within DoD. Finally, it describes the importance of holding leaders accountable for progress toward achieving a military workforce that is not only diverse demographically but inclusive of all the characteristics required for high performance in the future.

Priority: Aligning the Organizational Structure to Support an Effective Diversity Management System

- 20 Currently, responsibility for diversity management in the Office of the Secretary of Defense (OSD) is assigned to the Office of Diversity Management and Equal Opportunity (ODMEO). This office is charged with promoting equal opportunity throughout DoD and overseeing diversity policy for DoD, including coordinating the diversity efforts of the Services.

ODMEO grew out of the Office of Equal Opportunity, which was established under the Deputy Assistant Secretary of Defense for Equal Opportunity, DASD (EO). In June 2006, the Under Secretary of Defense for Personnel and Readiness disestablished DASD (EO) and placed the renamed Office of Equal Opportunity and Diversity Management (ODMEO) under the Deputy Under Secretary of Defense for Plans (DUSD (Plans)). This change dealt two blows: demotion in status and loss of a political appointee position to set and carry out the agenda (Haughton, 2010; U.S. Department of Defense, Undersecretary of Defense, Personnel and Readiness, 2006). In 2010, the position of DUSD (Plans) was eliminated, and ODMEO was placed under the DUSD (Readiness). For some time, then, ODMEO has been isolated from top leadership and unable to set the agenda or drive progress. Today, it remains an understaffed office far below the Secretary. In the military departments and the Services, the placement of, and funding and staffing for, the diversity offices vary considerably.

In addition to the CEO's leadership, responsibility for diversity in "best-practice" companies is seen as a line-management responsibility, not as a Human Resources . . . staff program or initiative.

— Defense Business Board Task Group on Increasing Diversity in DoD's Flag and Senior Executive Ranks, 2009

The Commission looked to industry to see how companies with exemplary diversity programs approach and organize for effective diversity management. The Commission found that the personal engagement of top leadership is the single most important factor in achieving diversity leadership and inclusion across any organization. In corporations, personal engagement from the chief executive officer (CEO) has been shown to be vital. In the U.S. military, the Secretary of Defense is analogous to the corporate CEO and, as such, should be responsible for pushing the department forward on the path to inclusion. He and his successors will, however, need help and continuity to enforce new policies and ensure that progress continues to be made. *The Commission believes that a systems approach is needed to ensure the sustained emphasis on diversity that has been lacking in the past. Within that system, the establishment of a Chief Diversity Officer CDO—a practice common to all the diversity exemplars studied—is the key driver towards embedding diversity within the “DNA” of DoD.*

Establish the Position of Chief Diversity Officer

Recommendation 15—

The Office of the Secretary of Defense organizational structure must be aligned to ensure a sustained focus on diversity and diversity initiatives and should include establishment of the position of a Chief Diversity Officer who reports directly to the Secretary of Defense.

- ***The existing “Research and Analysis” office should be directed and resourced to support the Chief Diversity Officer.***
- ***Chief, National Guard Bureau, must establish and resource organizational structures that support DoD diversity initiatives and reinforce ongoing National Guard diversity leadership efforts.***

In the educational and corporate worlds, the CDO does not have operational authority per se but depends on others for execution of diversity initiatives. Thus, he or she is a strategic business partner of others in the executive team, “helping them develop strategy for their business units and making sure that they understand what the organization is doing and why, how results are measured, who is accountable” (Dexter, 2010).

The Commission recommends that the DoD CDO report directly to the Secretary of Defense and receive support from the Undersecretary of Defense (P&R) (analogous to a vice president of human resources). This practice is one way of ensuring that diversity management is embraced as a “line,” rather than a “staff” responsibility. In addition, this reporting relationship supports the goal of establishing diversity leadership as the CEO’s responsibility. It is also consistent with military staff organizations, which typically have a small number of individuals with responsibilities of such importance (such as safety) that the commander keeps them close.

The CDO cannot work in isolation, however. *An integrated, holistic system to implementation and accountability is needed if progress is to be sustained.* Figure 11.1 illustrates such an approach, and reveals the centrality of the CDO to all facets of the system.

Figure 11.1. The Centrality of the CDO Within the Proposed Diversity Management System



The diversity management system is a set of mutually reinforcing elements that work together to provide effective, consistent implementation and persistent accountability for achieving the goals of diversity and inclusion. Note that all of these components have counterparts in best practices in the Services and/or the corporate world. These components are

- Accountability reviews: The Secretary of Defense meets annually with the leadership of each Service to go over progress towards diversity goals (see Recommendation 17). This prepares him or her for the Diversity Annual Report to Congress.
- Diversity Annual Report to Congress: Called for in Recommendation 5, this report from the Secretary of Defense draws on the Services' accountability reviews to review DoD's progress towards its overarching diversity goals.
- Early warning/IG function: The set of activities undertaken by the CDO together provide the information needed to alert the Secretary of potential problems with diversity management progress, programs, or practices
- Diversity Policy Integration Group: The CDO, acting as a strategic business partner, chairs a diversity policy integration group, through which OSD's policy offices take responsibility for implementation of diversity initiatives within their domains.³⁰
- DAWG diversity sessions: The Deputy's Advisory Working Group (DAWG), the existing senior DoD leadership forum, follows up in a regular meeting on overarching diversity issues (see Recommendation 19).

³⁰ This group would provide the CDO with access to policy offices that have not traditionally been involved with diversity and ensures the implementation of diversity initiatives, using a "mainstreaming" approach to infuse a diversity perspective across the organization. Implementation of diversity initiatives would be carried out by P&R's "line" organizations (Reserve Affairs, Civilian Personnel Policy, Military Personnel Policy, and Readiness) and ultimately by the Services.

- Expanded DACOWITS special studies: The Defense Advisory Committee on Women in the Services expands the scope of its work to provide external oversight and special studies focused on diversity issues of the day (See Recommendation 19).
- The CDO supervises “Research & Analysis,” which provides support for accountability reviews, the annual report to Congress, barrier analyses, and early warning of systemic diversity issues.

Provide the CDO with Research and Analysis Support

10 For the CDO to be effective, he/she needs timely, accurate, insightful research and analysis based on objective, standardized data. In its effort to provide recommendations that are executable, the Commission recommends that the CDO turn to the existing research and analysis office within P&R.³¹ This office must be properly resourced to support the many data and analysis requirements needed throughout the system, including accountability reviews, barrier analyses (see Recommendation 18), annual report to Congress, early warning of systemic diversity issues, the DAWG diversity sessions, and the expanded DACOWITS’ special studies.

Chief, National Guard Bureau, Must Reinforce Ongoing Efforts in Promoting Diversity

20 The unique features of the National Guard require specific attention in terms of implementation and accountability.³² As codified in Title 10, the President is the Commander in Chief of the Armed Forces of the United States, including the National Guard and Reserve when called to active duty. Most of the time, however, the National Guard is not on active duty and, therefore, not under federal control.

Title 32 assigns command of State Guard units to the Governors of the State, when they are not under federal control.³³ As commander in chief, each Governor selects the Adjutant General of his or her states. Title 10 and Title 32 effectively indicate that Chief, National Guard Bureau, has no command authority over each state’s National Guard.

30 Given these governing laws, the National Guard has a very different command and control structure from that of the Active Component. The fact that Guard members report to their State’s Governor as commander in chief means that policies are often state-specific and lack national oversight. In September, 2009, the National Guard Bureau established the position of Special Assistant to the Chief for Diversity. This “diversity office” has a single position, no annual budget, and reports to the Comptroller and Director of Administration and Management for NGB. Thus, the current diversity office is not staffed, resourced, or placed appropriately in the

³¹ To ensure broad knowledge of workforce issues, the R&A office should become a truly joint organization by including expert researchers from the major personnel centers of the Services. These Services’ analysts could serve at R&A on a rotational basis. Such a program would institutionalize knowledge sharing among the Services and OSD. Additional expertise could be provided by diversity experts at the federally funded research and development centers (FFRDCs). This talent base should serve as an advisory team to support the CDO and the R&A office.

³² Because the major recommendations include the Reserve Components through their parent Service, the focus here is on the National Guard.

³³ The President is the Commander-in-Chief of the District of Columbia National Guard.

organizational chart to influence policy or promote accountability, and top leadership are not involved.³⁴

Chief, National Guard Bureau, could take several steps to make the diversity office more effective. As with the Commission's recommendation to establish a CDO reporting directly to the Secretary of Defense, the Special Assistant to the Chief for Diversity should report directly to the Chief to maximize leadership visibility and involvement. In addition this office should be properly staffed and resourced to support the policy objectives of the leadership.

10 A properly resourced diversity office within the Chief's Personal Staff organization can act as the center of communication between NGB and OSD. It would also distribute policy and information to the Air and Army National Guard from the Chief, National Guard Bureau, Personal Staff position. These changes to reporting and resources will increase the ability of the Special Assistant for Diversity to influence NGB diversity policy and its implementation.

Priority: Developing Strategic Plans, Policies, and Metrics for a Diversity Management System

20 The CDO will need a solid foundation on which to build. First, to be effective and practical, the diversity management system must function within the framework of an overall DoD strategic plan that publicly states a diversity definition, vision, and goals for the Department. But individual Services need their own strategic plans for achieving diversity. Currently, only two Services have such plans: the Air Force and the Coast Guard. The release of the Air Force plan was announced during the writing of this report and was therefore not evaluated. The Coast Guard's plan has objectives, milestones, and metrics. Its focus, however, is primarily racial/ethnic and gender diversity, which is not consistent with the Coast Guard's broad definition of diversity. The other services have pieces of plans, but they have not been synthesized and promulgated and do not provide detailed, coordinated strategies for achieving the diversity visions. Nor have roles, responsibilities, authorities, and accountability been addressed in any coordinated fashion. Finally, DoD has a diversity policy (DoD Directive 1020.02), but no strategic plan.

30 Second, to support the strategic plan, *DoD, the military departments, and the Services need a strong set of policies that spells out roles, assigns and aligns responsibilities and authorities, and specifies who is accountable*. In addition, to compel progress towards the goals identified in the strategic plan, the Secretary of Defense needs to define a set of strategic metrics—directly linked to key organizational priorities and goals, actionable, and actively used to drive improvement.

³⁴ The role of the Special Assistant for Diversity is to provide diversity policy for the entire National Guard. The Army and Air National Guard offices are responsible for supporting these policies in each of the states. The Army National Guard has a national diversity office and a diversity coordinator in each state. The Air National Guard will stand up a diversity office in January 2011 and has a Human Resource Advisor in each state. However, these offices do not report directly to NGB's diversity office and are not obligated to advocate national diversity policy. Thus, much of the intended impact of this office is curtailed because it lacks direct implementation power. Given these limitations, good communication about the importance of the message and support for implementing the policy are key elements for successful implementation of national policy in the states, territories, and the District of Columbia.

In the area of equal opportunity, DoD had in place a number of directives and other policy statements, last revised in the 1990s. Together, these provided a rigorous accountability system designed to ensure the continuation of the department's pioneering past. These documents included the following mandates:

- Human Goals Charter, part of DoD's equal employment opportunity (EEO) policy for civilian employees, to be reissued by each new Secretary of Defense
- Military Equal Opportunity Assessment, to be compiled annually from reports and data submitted by the Services
- Defense Equal Opportunity Council, consisting of DoD's top leadership, to promulgate policy and track progress.

However, the mandates contained in these directives were allowed to lapse during the George W. Bush administration and have not been revived under President Barack Obama. The Commission believes that DoD needs newly crafted policies and plans that not only restore its leadership in equal opportunity but also address the realm of diversity, broadly defined. Ultimately, the goal of this effort is to embed the values of diversity and inclusion into the culture and practices of the military, as called for in Chapter 3.

Finally, the new system requires a set of metrics to monitor progress toward achieving the goals expressed in the strategic plan. Regular, rigorous evaluations and assessments can inform military leaders as to how well the new diversity paradigm defined in the strategic plans is "sticking," and how effective each program is.

Implement Clear, Consistent, Robust Diversity Management Policies

Recommendation 16—

DoD and the Services must resource and institute clear, consistent, and robust diversity management policies with emphasis on roles, responsibilities, authorities, and accountability.

- ***a. DoD and the Services shall implement diversity strategic plans that address all stages of a servicemember's life cycle. Each strategic plan shall include***
 - ***a diversity mission statement that prioritizes equity and inclusion and provides a purpose that is actionable and measurable***
 - ***a Concept of Operations to advance implementation.***
- ***b. DoD must revise (if appropriate), reissue, and enforce compliance with its existing diversity management and equal opportunity policies to***
 - ***Define a standard set of strategic metrics and benchmarks that enables the Secretary of Defense to measure progress towards the goals identified in the strategic plan, including the creation of an inclusive environment.***

- ***Establish standards that allow for the collection of data needed to generate these metrics and the analysis needed to inform policy action.***
- ***Provide oversight of, and support for, the Services’ respective diversity initiatives and metrics to ensure that, at a minimum, they align with the end state established by DoD.***

Create Diversity Strategic Plans

10 Under the umbrella of a DoD strategic diversity management plan, each of the Services needs its own strategic plan, crafted to articulate goals related to the amount and type of diversity in their forces as well as how all types of diversity should be leveraged to improve mission capability. In particular, the strategic plans should highlight the creation of cultures that value equity and inclusion as a fundamental aspect of successful diversity management and should lay the groundwork for embedding diversity leadership as a core competency of the Armed Forces. The diversity plans must also address the whole personnel life cycle of military members to ensure that the Services recruit effectively from an ever more demographically diverse eligible population and that they facilitate career progression for a force that will be increasingly diverse along many dimensions, including not just race, ethnicity, and gender, but also religion, functional expertise, and military component, among others. Within this diversity management construct, facilitating career progression means equipping servicemembers to proactively map out and follow their own career paths.

20 Finally, to ensure that strategic plans are translated into practical action, each plan should include a Concept of Operations (CONOPS) to clearly and concisely express what leadership intends to accomplish and how it will be done with available resources.³⁵ Specifically, the CONOPS should tell leaders how to plan for and monitor the way diversity is managed from recruiting to training, branching, assignment, education, retention, promotion, and command and who will be held responsible for making progress at each stage.

Revise, Reissue, and Enforce Compliance with Existing Diversity Management and EO Policies

30 Good policies outlast individual leaders and are required for institutionalization. Currently, the Services’ diversity policy statements say nice things about diversity but contain no specifics about what diversity programs should cover, how they should be executed, or who is responsible for achieving the desired results. The DoD policy on diversity management and equal opportunity, DoD Directive 1020.02, provides a general framework by distinguishing between diversity management and EO, but it is vague about implementation and contains no real accountability mechanism.

Following the development of their diversity strategic plans, both DoD and the Services need to strengthen and finalize their diversity management policies, some of which have been in draft for many years. Service policies will vary according to Service culture and practices but, as with

³⁵ According to the Department of Defense Dictionary of Military and Associated Terms, a CONOPS is “[a] verbal or graphic statement that clearly and concisely expresses what the joint force commander intends to accomplish and how it will be done using available resources. The concept is designed to give an overall picture of the operation.”

the DoD and Service-specific strategic plans, DoD needs to provide a fleshed-out policy umbrella under which they can operate. In addition, OSD should remedy some of the omissions of the past decade. The military already has several well-established and understood Equal Employment Opportunity and Military Equal Opportunity (EEO/MEO) policies, but some important pieces of DoD EO policies have been allowed to lapse.³⁶

These policies will need to be revised in accordance with the vision defined in the DoD strategic diversity management plan and put into effect in ways that not only improve the representation of minorities and women in military leadership but also increase military readiness and support mission accomplishment.

10 ***Define a Standard Set of Strategic Metrics and Benchmarks that Enables the Secretary of Defense to Measure Progress***

The Commission's review of management literature and testimony by diversity managers of major companies suggested that metrics empower an organization by enabling managers and workers to evaluate and control the performance of the resources for which they are responsible and by helping them identify gaps between performance and expectation that ideally point the way for intervention and improvement. To do this effectively, however, metrics need to be designed carefully and result in clearly communicated messages. The final results should provide the user of the metrics with a sense of knowing what needs to be done without requiring him/her to understand the intricacies of every related process. Poorly developed or poorly implemented
20 metrics can lead to frustration and confusion, and send mixed messages.

The DoD already has well-established metrics for measuring progress in demographic diversity. According to DoD Directive 1350.2, the Services are required submit an annual Military Equal Opportunity Assessment that reports the demographic composition of promotions, retention, and assignments for that year and contains data on additional aspects of demographic diversity. This assessment was the sole reporting mechanism required from the Services on their Affirmative Action and EO policies, and while the report is still a requirement according to policy, it was last produced in September, 2004, using FY2002 data. The Commission recommends that DoD enforce this reporting requirement and compliance with the goals of the Services' strategic plans.³⁷

30 Although the Services do internally track the demographic profile of their personnel, they generally do not systematically follow other aspects of diversity, such as cultural expertise and ability, nor do they explicitly evaluate the inclusiveness of the environment. To properly assess the broad diversity climate, DoD and each Service need to begin tracking, reporting, and reviewing programs and personnel accordingly.

This requires developing a new set of metrics to capture the inclusion and capability aspects of its broader diversity goals. Assessment results will allow leaders to enforce accountability, discern which strategies are most effective, and acquire a big-picture view as to how the new

³⁶ DoDD 1020.02 refers to four major EO directives: 5500.11 and 1020.1 on nondiscrimination, 1440.1 on DoD Civilian EEO policies, and 1350.2 on Military Equal Opportunity Policies (MEO). Examples of lapsed EO requirements include the Human Goals Charter, the Defense Equal Opportunity Council, and the Military Equal Opportunity Assessment.

³⁷ The Commission recommends that the data continue to be reported but that the accountability review process be used (see recommendation 17).

vision of diversity is being received and implemented across the Armed Forces. These metrics must go beyond the traditional “head-counting” metrics (e.g., how many women are in the Navy?) used to assess the success of diversity policies in the past. Relying entirely on the traditional metrics can send the wrong signal about diversity, suggesting that Armed Forces need to reach a “quota” of certain people regardless of their qualifications in order to meet diversity “standards.” Establishing an environment of inclusion is not about adhering to a set of regulations but about working with different people towards a common goal, and it is important to create metrics that are consistent with this new vision.

10

Characteristics of Good Metrics

Developed with an end state in mind and are systematically linked to strategic goals. Metrics should link intended goals, strategies, and actual execution. Metrics not linked to a strategic end state do not create value to organizations.

Clearly stated. Metrics should be easily understood and communicated.

Value-added. Metrics should deliver value to the organization by providing information on key aspects of performance

Actionable to drive improvements. A good metric must provide information that has implications for a clear plan of action

20

Tracked over time. Metrics must be tracked over time to provide information on the trend in the metric, not simply its status at one moment in time

Verifiable. Metrics should be based on an agreed upon set of data and a documented process for converting data into the measure.

30

The primary property of good diversity metrics is going beyond simply calculating representation of particular groups in the workforce to measuring how those groups are integrated in the workforce. Some of the best measures of this kind can come from administrative data sources. The advantages of these sources are both that they release servicemembers from the burden of filling out surveys and that they are the result of a standardized, rigorous administrative processes. The example of disciplinary data is used to illustrate this point.

Going Beyond Head-Counting. Although the Services do internally track the demographic profile of their personnel, they generally do not systematically follow other aspects of diversity, such as cultural expertise and ability, not do they deliberately evaluate the inclusiveness of the environment. To properly assess the diversity climate, DoD and each Service need to begin tracking, reporting, and reviewing programs and personnel accordingly.

Survey data are one means of assessing command climate and the extent to which it is inclusive. Data on EO and sexual harassment complaints provide another source of information.

40

A third metric for an inclusive environment is provided by discipline data: court martial cases and nonjudicial punishment. Discipline data are more reliable than survey data as an indicator of command climate. Each data points represents the results of an investigation that provided

sufficient evidence to bring charges, whereas the survey data are based on anonymous responses from self-selected samples of servicemembers.

The Services provided us with recent data on courts martial. Where available, we analyzed the data for 2007 and 2008. We show the 2008 data across court martial type for the four DoD Services combined. Because the data we received did not use consistent race and ethnicity categories, we show the information for three categories: non-Hispanic blacks, whites, and others. The “other” category includes the following groups: American Indian/Alaska Native, Asian/Pacific Islander, Hispanic, and those whose race and ethnicity are unknown.

Table 11.1. Court Martial Cases, by Race and Ethnicity Group, 2008

| Race and Ethnicity Group | Court Martial Cases | No. of Military Personnel | Rate per Thousand |
|--------------------------|---------------------|---------------------------|-------------------|
| White | 2,937 | 895,965 | 3.28 |
| Black | 1,240 | 231,645 | 5.35 |
| Other | 715 | 259,641 | 2.75 |
| Total | 4,892 | 1,387,251 | 3.53 |

The discipline data are normalized into rates of cases brought per thousand servicemembers; they include all active-duty personnel—enlisted, officers, and warrant officers. The patterns were consistent across Services and for both 2007 and 2008: Blacks had a much higher rate of being court martialed. The differences were statistically significant; the probability that the differences are due to random chance is very low, less than 0.01. That level of statistical significance was present in the analysis of each Service individually, as well.

The discipline data have the potential for multiple interpretations. Note that the data presented here do not indicate the outcome of the court martial; information on outcome would add another level of meaning to the data. Differences in discipline rates may reflect difficulties in some servicemembers’ feeling fully included in their unit, their Service, and most importantly the U.S. military. Differential rates by race and ethnicity can indicate that current acculturation processes have failed to fully assimilate minorities to internalize norms of the Services, or they could reflect a failure in diversity leadership. Without further investigation, we cannot pinpoint locations of this failure in the existing acculturation process. But the data clearly indicate that the process has failed differentially for black servicemembers.

These data do not take into account an array of relevant factors that influence the numbers, and due to lack of standardization, we could not look in more depth at patterns for different race and ethnicity categories. It is worth noting, however, that in-depth analyses of such data could be undertaken by the CDO. Such information is a good candidate for a diversity metric at the strategic level.

Establish Standards that Allow for the Collection of Data Needed to Generate These Metrics and the Analysis Needed to Inform Policy Action

Currently, the Services are not consistent in the data they collect. For meaningful metrics, a standard set of data definitions and collection procedures that are uniform across the Services must be employed and enforced. Currently, even basic demographic data are not uniform across DoD, nor are such metrics as promotion or retention rates calculated in a consistent manner. The

CDO should promulgate standards for both these basic data elements and the new types of information required to produce more meaningful measures of diversity and inclusion. The CDO should also produce standards for analytical methodology to ensure that analysis of the data is rigorous, meaningful, and consistent over time and from one Service to the next.

Provide Oversight of, and Support for, the Services' Respective Diversity Initiatives and Metrics to Ensure that, at a Minimum, They Align with the End State Established by DoD

10 The Secretary of Defense, through the accountability review process described in Recommendation 17, will meet annually with Service leadership to discuss the state of diversity within the Services and their progress toward the two goals of demographic representation and mission capability. Annual meetings at this strategic level are necessary to ensure that top leadership across DoD is fully engaged in meeting the diversity goals established by the Secretary. The CDO will play a key role in this effort by ensuring the production of consistent, meaningful diversity metrics. He or she should also work with the Services' diversity offices to guide and monitor their Service-specific diversity work.

Priority: Holding Leaders Accountable

20 Meaningful change is most likely to be sustained if leaders are held accountable for performance at all stages of implementation. Ongoing communication, assessment, and a rewards system are effective approaches to take when trying to change the norms of an organization, but ultimately, leaders should be responsible for developing an organizational culture that values and benefits from diversity.

The best accountability measures reviewed by the Commission did much more than have managers check a box on a form. Rather, organizations use both internal and external measures to assure top leadership that there is commitment and engagement from management at all levels of the organization. Internally, mid-level leaders are held accountable for their performance in carrying out plans and are rewarded accordingly. Externally, all leaders, including those at the top, are reviewed by outside consultants that have the ability to ask the most difficult questions and give tough feedback—actions that can be challenging for insiders due to lack of critical distance or fear of repercussion.

30 Once DoD develops a plan, policies, and metrics, it can't just put them on the shelf. Top leadership must make use of these tools to drive progress by holding themselves and the leadership below them accountable for following the plan, implementing the policies, and measuring the results. The annual report to Congress discussed earlier is the bedrock of accountability. It requires the Secretary to document, from a strategic level, the extent to which the Services are reaching their goals of achieving better both racial/ethnic and gender representation across the ranks and creating a more inclusive environment. At the end of this section, the Commission recommends that the Secretary add another subject to that annual report.

Institute a System of Accountability Reviews

Recommendation 17—

DoD must and DHS (Coast Guard) should institute a system of “accountability reviews” that is driven by the Secretaries of Defense and Homeland Security (Coast Guard).

- ***a. The Secretary of Defense shall meet at least annually with Service Secretaries, Service Chiefs, senior enlisted leaders and Chief, National Guard Bureau, to drive progress toward the diversity management goals identified in the strategic plans. The Coast Guard should be subject to a similar review.***
- ***b. The Secretary of Defense and Secretary of Homeland Security should send an annual report to Congress and the President on the progress made toward diversity management goals in the Services, including the Reserve Component; the report should include the barrier analyses described in Recommendation 18.***
- ***c. The National Guard Bureau should report annually to Congress and DoD on the status of diversity in each state, territory, and the District of Columbia for all ranks of the Army and Air National Guard. This report shall show how reflective the Army and Air National Guard are of the eligible pool in their particular state, territory, or the District of Columbia.***
 - ***Based on the report to Congress, the National Guard Bureau shall produce a “dashboard” of diversity metrics to be used by the Army and Air National Guard. This dashboard shall show comparisons across states, territories, and the District of Columbia and highlight best practices.***

The practice of annual accountability reviews was initiated for the Navy by Chief of Naval Operations (CNO) Mike Mullen and expanded by his successor, CNO Gary Roughead. Admiral Roughead sits down annually, one-on-one, with each of his 16 enterprise heads (all flag officers) on the topic of racial, ethnic, and gender diversity within that enterprise, or community. In these reviews, each enterprise head discusses with the CNO the demographic diversity health of his or her community.

These meetings do not consist of a 100-slide briefing deck; rather, they are conversations that focus on both progress and problem areas. Enterprise heads are expected to speak

knowledgeably and comfortably about the current composition of their force, the factors that led to that composition, and any initiatives undertaken to affect that profile in the future.

The Commission considers the CNO’s accountability review process a best practice that each Service can follow—either on its own or in support of OSD-level reviews. This recommendation

[The accountability reviews] are extraordinarily valuable. . . . [They have] focused leadership in a way that is more than shouting louder. It’s about substance, mentoring, development, understanding who you have, moving them along.

—Chief of Naval Operations Gary Roughead,
remarks to the MLDC, 2010

uses the Navy's accountability review construct as the model for a series of similar sessions across DoD, culminating in a meeting between the Secretary of Defense and each Service, represented by its Service Chief, Service Secretary, and Senior Enlisted Leader. At that meeting, the Service leadership would discuss with the Secretary of Defense their progress in meeting the goals in that Service's diversity strategic plan.

One way for the Service chief to prepare for that meeting is to sit down, one-on-one, with his or her enterprise heads or their equivalent. Another option might be using the senior leadership forum in each Service to share community diversity status and lessons learned.³⁸

10 Regardless of the specific process, a system of accountability reviews would force diversity accountability down as leaders prepared to brief up the chain. It would also serve as a powerful indicator of leader commitment to achieving and leading a diverse force. Finally, it would enable military leadership not only to see evidence on demographics but also to take stock of the diversity awareness and leadership of those in line to succeed them. In particular, it would provide a forum for senior leaders to assess whether and how leaders at lower levels are leveraging all types of diversity in their units to improve capability.

The role of the CDO in the accountability review process is preparation and facilitation. The CDO's responsibilities might include analyzing data, assembling evidence, preparing the Secretary of Defense, coordinating with the Services, attending each Service's review, and monitoring compliance with directives.

20 The command-and-control structure of the National Guard makes holding leaders accountable at the state level a complex issue.³⁹ To increase accountability at the state level, the National Guard Bureau should both prepare the annual report to Congress (called for in Recommendation 5b) and set up and maintain a detailed diversity "dashboard" to help National Guard units, and their state leadership, assess their diversity efforts related to demographic representation.⁴⁰ The dashboard will include statistics on career progression as well as racial/ethnic and gender representation compared with state-specific civilian population benchmarks. Easy access to such data is expected to increase stakeholder and public awareness about diversity issues in the National Guard and, consequently, increase accountability.

30 A web-based dashboard was developed by the Air National Guard, allowing continuous updating and interactivity. An expanded dashboard covering both the Air and Army National Guard can help each state identify diversity problem areas and solutions. It should incorporate some of the same statistics included in the report to Congress, augmented with diversity indicators at the unit level. Moreover, the dashboard website should include a compendium of diversity best practices and programs. Such a compilation will be a resource for states just beginning, or struggling to implement, diversity initiatives.

All of the information contained in the dashboard should be available to the states. Taken together, the statistics and best practices will help leaders assess the diversity situation of their units or commands and facilitate improvement in state National Guard diversity programs.

³⁸ This recommendation envisions focused annual meetings between the Secretary of Defense and the different Service secretaries, Service chiefs, and senior enlisted advisors; the DAWG, in contrast, would focus on policy and take on specific issues as they arose.

³⁹ Throughout the discussion of the National Guard, "states" includes U.S. territories and the District of Columbia.

⁴⁰ A dashboard is a detailed display of key metrics.

The Services Should Conduct Annual Barrier Analyses

Recommendation 18—

As part of the accountability reviews, the Services, in conjunction with the Chief Diversity Officer (established in Recommendation 15), should conduct annual “barrier analyses” to review demographic diversity patterns across the military life cycle, starting with accessions.

- ***a. To ensure comparability across Services, DoD shall establish a universal data collection system, and the analyses of the data should be based on common definitions of demographic groups, a common methodology, and a common reporting structure.***
- ***b. The annual analyses should include***
 - ***accession demographics***
 - ***retention, command selection, and promotion rates by race, ethnicity, and gender***
 - ***analysis of assignment patterns by race, ethnicity, and gender***
 - ***analysis of attitudinal survey data by race, ethnicity, and gender***
 - ***identification of persistent, group-specific deviations from overall averages and plans to investigate underlying causes***
 - ***summaries of progress made on previous actions.***

10

20

The annual reports and accountability review process will provide military leaders of all Components with the information they need to move towards the goals of representation and inclusion. However, the Commission believes that further steps are required to ensure that both the annual report and the accountability reviews are based on accurate data, and that appropriate analysis has converted the data into actionable information.

30

To prepare for the accountability reviews, each Navy enterprise conducts “barrier analyses” based on what the data show about how female and racial/ethnic minority members are progressing along the community’s notional career path. This practice should be adopted by all Services and take place at the Service level. All steps along the career life cycle should be assessed—recruiting, career field selection, assignment to command and other key billets, education milestones, retention, and promotion. The process includes not only assessments of statistical variances by race, ethnicity, and gender and analyses of root causes for (i.e., barriers) any differences, but also identification of corrective actions and creation of representation goals and metrics.

40

Each Service has its own career structures, career progression patterns, and other idiosyncrasies, which it understands best. For this reason, and to ensure that the Services take ownership of diversity initiatives, the Services should take the lead in preparation of the barrier analyses. The CDO should serve as a consultant to each Service, ensuring analytical consistency across DoD and seeking to understand any inherent and valid differences. The CDO must ensure that all Services are adhering to data and reporting standards described above. Once the standards are promulgated, accountability reviews within each Service can also take advantage of them to produce consistent analysis both across communities and over time.

If the barrier analyses, accountability reviews and annual reports are to be meaningful over time and across reporting groups (i.e., Services and components), they require the collection of consistent, comparable data from all the Services. OSD should define and the Defense Manpower Data Center (DMDC) should promulgate these standards and data structures to the Services, and the Services must be directed to follow them. In addition, analysis of the data must also adhere to common standards and methodology.

10 The Commission was hampered in its research by the lack of such standards. All of the subcommittees that analyzed personnel data faced the same problem: lack of consistency across the Services. For example, the Services do not use the same procedures for estimating retention rates or even consistent race and ethnicity categories for their calculations, nor do they regularly report retention results. This made it very hard to make comparisons across Services, but more importantly, it also makes it difficult to formulate any DoD-wide assessments of retention patterns. This MLDC recommendation asks all the Services to collect and analyze equivalent data in order to compare retention rates, as well as other important aspects of career progression, while still allowing them to individually calculate whatever statistics may be meaningful within each Service.⁴¹

20 Regardless of the type of data collected, it must be consistent not only across Services, but also over time. This can be achieved through the use of common methodologies, data definitions, and reporting conventions. By keeping track of consistent data year after year, DoD and each individual Service can assess when and where interventions may be necessary to address differential rates of career progression; they can also use the data to help assess whether policy or program changes have made a difference.

⁴¹ The Commission recommends that three different types of data be collected for the purpose of tracking career progression across diverse groups:

- personnel data can be used to show actual behavior and outcomes.. Personnel data should go beyond race, ethnicity, and gender to include other aspects of diversity as need dictates (e.g., religion, language ability, or other low density, high demand skills).
- survey data that show attitudes and opinions can be used to assess why group- level differences in career progression may be occurring. For example, exit surveys could be used to collect information about reasons for leaving active duty service. Currently, not all Services conduct exit surveys, and there is no centralized system for collection or analysis of this type of data. In the National Defense Authorization Act for FY2000, Congress required that every member separating from active duty service during a six-month period be surveyed regarding his or her reasons for leaving. The survey was conducted once by DMDC and never repeated (see Deak et al., 2002).
- focused qualitative data can more specifically address the issues identified by personnel and/or survey data. Although exit surveys can be helpful in terms of quantitative analysis, they sometimes cannot provide the nuanced reasons why an individual chooses to leave active duty service. Thus, the commission also recommends the use of focused qualitative data, such as that obtained in focus groups, to study personnel and manpower issues.

Institute Mechanisms for Accountability and Internal and External Monitoring for Both the Active and Reserve Components

Recommendation 19—

DoD must and DHS (Coast Guard) should institute mechanisms for accountability and internal and external monitoring for both the Active and Reserve Components.

- ***a. The Services must embed diversity leadership in performance assessments throughout careers.***
- ***b. DoD must and DHS (Coast Guard) should establish diversity leadership as a criterion for nomination and appointment to senior enlisted leadership positions and flag/general officers, including 3- and 4-star positions and Service Chief.***
 - ***The Senate Armed Services Committee should include this criterion in its confirmation questionnaire.***
- ***c. The Secretary of Defense must transfer the functions of the former Defense Equal Opportunity Council to a minimum of biannual meetings of DoD's leadership, the existing Deputy's Advisory Working Group).***
- ***d. The Secretary of Defense must expand the DACOWITS charter, where appropriate, to encompass diversity as a whole.***

Over the years, there have been many reports, studies, and bodies established to look at equal opportunity and racial/ethnic and gender diversity in the military. The Commission has heard that in the past, when progress was made in increasing demographic diversity among senior officers, there was no deliberate, coordinated effort to monitor that progress and ensure that it continued. As a result, the same themes and recommendations can be found in studies conducted across the past 20 years.

Early in this chapter, the Commission laid out a system for diversity management, centered around the CDO. The CDO does not have the authority, however, to establish policies or ensure adherence to them. In particular, the CDO cannot, on his own, drive the culture change needed to create an inclusive environment or embed the use of effective diversity leadership practices.

Thus, the final piece of the Commission's recommended implementation and accountability system is aimed at institutionalizing diversity leadership throughout the Armed Forces, forcing continuing engagement on the part of senior leadership, and providing the means for sustained efforts.

Embed Diversity Leadership in Performance Assessments Throughout Careers

Accountability for internalizing and modeling diversity leadership is needed throughout the Armed Forces, not only at senior levels. Discussions about evaluating an individual's diversity leadership often center on the difficulty of measuring such a thing. But, a simple "check the box" on an assessment form will accomplish nothing. In its research, the Commission discovered several practices that could be used by the Services to evaluate diversity leadership throughout a servicemember's career. Based on its understanding of private sector practices and military

culture, the Commission believes that the Services must incorporate such assessment mechanisms into their performance evaluation systems. Possible mechanisms for embedding diversity leadership as part of the core competencies expected of a servicemember include the following:

- documentation of one's diversity leadership in a self statement
- incorporation of diversity perspective into leadership assessment
- 360-degree evaluations
- utilization of relevant indicators
 - climate survey trends
 - discipline and EO data
 - retention rates.

A place to start could be following the Coast Guard practice of a self-statement documenting what one has done to foster an environment of inclusion. Another approach would draw from the Navy's incorporation of EO practices into its assessments of enlisted personnel. This approach could be expanded through incorporating diversity leadership and inclusion into the existing assessment of leadership in general.

And, even though it runs counter to the hierarchical military culture, the Services could experiment with 360-degree evaluations. These involve assessment by one's peers and subordinates, as well as the boss. Sodexo uses these 360-degree evaluations to gauge its executive team's performance in diversity management, diversity leadership, and inclusion.

At higher levels of the hierarchy, other options are available, including a careful utilization of numerical indicators. For officers who have held command, possible metrics involve indicators of the climate within their units. These include trends in climate surveys, unit disciplinary and EO data, and retention rates. Although it is expected that such data will form part of the accountability reviews described in Recommendation 17, it may be worth examining their usage in individual assessment at a lower level.

Both quantitative and qualitative metrics are important and should be utilized. Whereas quantitative metrics are generally easier to collect, making the extra effort to integrate both types provides a more complete picture of an individual's diversity leadership. At Sodexo, for example,

the quantitative metrics look at recruiting, retention, promotion of women and minorities. The qualitative metrics ... are about behavior change. We look at things like mentoring, like engagement in the community....So, the qualitative aspect of the scorecard [has] been very, very critical in changing the behaviors because otherwise it becomes just a numbers game, "the quota has to be filled" is how it's perceived. But here what we are saying is, their behavior systemically need[s] to be changed. If you get the right behaviors, you'll get to the numbers. So, we look at really both of those. (Anand, 2010)

Diversity Leadership as a Criterion for Top Leadership

The assessment of diversity leadership performance must be extended to the highest levels of the Services. Demonstrated diversity leadership should be a topic of conversation in both the nomination and confirmation of flag and general officers to 3- and 4-star positions, both within DoD and in the confirmation process. Although this is important for all senior leadership positions, it is especially relevant for Service chiefs and senior enlisted advisors. As has been shown elsewhere in this report, personal commitment at the top is a crucial ingredient in establishing and sustaining successful diversity leadership throughout an organization.

10 The Commission heard about effective diversity practices from chief diversity officers at companies that have been acclaimed for their excellence in creating demographically diverse workforces and inclusive environments. One of the topics they spoke about was the need for an executive team committed to diversity.

In response to a question about how Sodexo ensures that executives hired from outside are as committed to diversity and inclusion as the rest of the senior team, Dr. Rohini Anand's reply indicated the importance of including diversity leadership in the interview process:

20 [T] the candidates who've come from the outside to Sodexo have actually said that they are very surprised [at] the emphasis that the organization places on diversity in the interview process, so they really are asked about their commitment, what they have done, their understanding. And if they are not articulate on this particular topic, we don't seriously consider them. (Anand, 2010)

Along these lines, the Commission believes that those individuals considered for top leadership positions, both senior enlisted appointments and 3- and 4-star nominations, should be expected to be "articulate on this particular topic." They should be able to address their experience in providing diversity leadership not only for race, ethnicity, and gender but across all dimensions.

Congress can assist in establishing diversity leadership as a criterion for 3- and 4-star positions through the questionnaire each nominee must submit to the Senate Armed Services Committee. Requiring a self-statement on how the nominee has demonstrated

Regardless of how staff support is provided or where it is placed, all "best practice" companies regard diversity as a line management leadership issue. This leadership imperative in several "best-practice" companies is active and visible through:

- Diversity Councils—heads of major business units that meet periodically with the CEO and HR/diversity head to review diversity progress and plan initiatives.
- Advisory Boards—distinguished outside advisors and experts who meet periodically with the business leaders and Affinity Group leaders . . . to bring external perspectives and developments to the company.
- Performance Appraisals and Leadership Assessments—that reinforce the importance of diversity by including assessments of creating a diverse culture and recruiting, developing and promoting a diverse talent pool in measuring executives' performance.

—Defense Business Board Task Group on Increasing Diversity in DoD's Flag and Senior Executive Ranks, 2009

diversity leadership will further emphasize its importance and lead to sustained progress.

Reestablish a Leadership Forum for Diversity

As part of an integrated, strategic approach to accountability, the MLDC recommends that DoD revisit the goals and duties ascribed to the now-defunct Defense Equal Opportunity Council (DEOC), with an eye towards transferring applicable goals and duties to the DAWG. The membership of the DAWG is close to that of the former DEOC, and specifying diversity, broadly defined, as part of the DAWG's mission and purview will reinstate the high-level attention to EO that had been allowed to lapse and expand it to encompass other aspects of diversity.⁴²

10 The DEOC, first established in 1987, was given the responsibility to advise the Secretary of Defense on EO policies, coordinate policy and review programs, and monitor progress of program elements. DEOC members presented regular progress reports on how well DoD was meeting EO goals, and appointed members to attend to specific issues by forming working committees such as the DEOC Task Force on Discrimination and Sexual Harassment. This body was one of the mechanisms set forth in DoD's EO policies that, like the Human Goals Charter and the MEOA, fell into disuse in the past 10 years.

20 The DAWG, established in conjunction with the Quadrennial Defense Review process, consists of the most senior military and civilian leaders, including co-chairs Vice Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff and the Deputy Secretary of Defense. Meetings are held twice weekly, and consist of presentations on and candid discussion of matters concerning military leadership. The MLDC recommends that this body hold regular meetings, at least twice a year, on diversity issues. Such meetings will form part of the strategic accountability system proposed by the MLDC. They will also help anchor the concepts of diversity and inclusion in the most senior leadership of the Armed Forces.

Expand the DACOWITS Charter

In 1951, Secretary of Defense George C. Marshall established the Defense Advisory Committee on Women in the Services (DACOWITS) to provide advice and recommendations on issues related to women serving in the military. DACOWITS is now a Federal Advisory Committee, authorized by Congress. Currently, it comprises up to

The Committee is composed of civilian women and men who are appointed by the Secretary of Defense to provide advice and recommendations on matters and policies relating to the recruitment and retention, treatment, employment, integration, and well-being of highly qualified professional women in the Armed Forces. Historically, DACOWITS' recommendations have been very instrumental in effecting changes to laws and policies pertaining to military women.

—Defense Department Advisory Committee on Women in the Services, undated-b

⁴²The chair and membership of the DEOC differ in the two directives that establish it, DODD 1440.1 (DoD Civilian Equal Employment Opportunity (EEO) Program) and DODD 1350.2 (Department of Defense Military Equal Opportunity (MEO) Program). In the directive on EEO, first published in 1987, the chair is the ASN (FM&P); members included the ASD (Reserve Affairs), and the military department's assistant secretaries for personnel policy and Reserve affairs. The directive on MEO, first published in 1995, raised the bar, with the Deputy Secretary of Defense as Chair, USD (P&R) as vice chair, and a membership including the under secretaries of defense, the secretaries of the military departments, and the CJCS. The more senior membership is close to that of the DAWG and ensured that the panel was sufficiently senior to assume leadership and take decisive action.

35 civilian members distributed across demographic groups, career fields, and geography. DACOWITS members come from one of the following groups: former servicemembers, military family members, and experts in women's workforce issues. DACOWITS has a long list of accomplishments over the past 60 years.⁴³

10 The Commission suggests that DACOWITS expand its charter beyond gender to include diversity of all types. The group would continue to hold regular meetings, sponsor research, and undertake installation visits and other means of eliciting servicemembers' views. In addition, the expanded Committee would receive briefings by DoD leadership on metrics and progress made on implementing diversity management plans and policies. The Commission notes that DACOWITS dates to 1951 and has provided a clear, unapologetic forum on issues for women in the military. This focus must not disappear when other elements of diversity are addressed. Besides the example provided by DACOWITS, this concept—creating an external body to monitor progress on achieving diversity goals—has recently been adopted by Sodexo. Its CEO views this establishment as a “next phase in [Sodexo's] commitment to diversity and inclusion” (Sodexo, 2010).

Providing an external body to focus on diversity in the Services would help “keep things honest” and add an additional dimension to DoD's monitoring mechanisms. Expanding DACOWITS's charter would provide continuity and place gender issues within the broader context of diversity.

20 **Include an Assessment of Qualified Minority and Female Candidates for Top Leadership Positions in Annual Report to Congress**

Recommendation 20—

In congruence with Recommendation 5, Congress should revise Title 10, Section 113, to require the Secretary of Defense to report annually an assessment of the available pool of qualified minority and female candidates for the 3- and 4-star flag/general officer positions.

- 30
- The Secretary of Defense must ensure that all qualified candidates (including minorities and women) have been considered for the nomination of every 3- and 4-star position. If there were no qualified minority and/or female candidates, then a statement of explanation should be made in the package submitted to the Senate for the confirmation hearings.***

As part of the effort to improve accountability, the Commission suggests that Congress include an additional requirement to the revisions in Title 10 called for in Recommendation 5: The Secretary of Defense, in his annual diversity report to Congress, should provide an assessment of the pool of qualified minority and female candidates for 3- and 4-star positions. Developing a pool of strong nominees from traditionally underrepresented groups needs also to become a DoD-wide goal, as the statistics presented in the previous chapter demonstrate. How

⁴³ See the Defense Department Advisory Committee on Women in the Services (undated-a) for more information on its processes, research, and reports.

well leaders are doing at promoting members of underrepresented groups should be made transparent through documentation.

This recommendation complements Recommendation 10b, which involves formalizing and documenting the process and requirements for promotion to 3- and 4-star rank. One of the reforms the Commission would like to see made permanent is the requirement for the Services to provide to the Secretary biannual “laydowns” of their flag and general officer corps.⁴⁴ These would focus on the up-and coming 2-star officers and the paths laid out for their advancement. With Recommendation 20, the Commission suggests that the race, ethnicity, and gender aspects of the laydown be provided annually to Congress.

- 10 The second part of this recommendation carries this concern over to a case-by-case certification that qualified minority and women candidates were considered, as each nomination is sent to the Senate. If no qualified minority or female candidates were identified, the Secretary should accompany each nomination with an explanation for that lack.

Summary

This chapter has presented a combined approach to the challenges of designing and implementing diversity policies throughout DoD: It has taken the best from military diversity practices and from corporate diversity practices that are especially congruent with DoD concerns and culture.

- 20 Successful implementation of diversity initiatives requires a deliberate strategy. Piecemeal efforts will not effect the change in culture that is needed, nor will they address all of the stages of a servicemember’s career. Among the issues that the Commission addressed are the need for a systems approach and the designation of an individual to facilitate and sustain change. Clear, robust policies that specify roles, responsibilities, authorities, and accountability are required to institutionalize change. Appropriate Service-wide metrics and reporting tools must be put in place and leaders held accountable for progress toward explicit diversity goals. Finally, the Commission believes that a continuing external monitoring mechanism will serve as an insurance policy, so that another military leadership diversity commission will never be needed.

⁴⁴ Former Secretary of Defense Donald Rumsfeld instituted the practice of requiring the Services to provide a comprehensive picture of their flag and general officers and the positions they held. Information in these “laydowns” included when positions were projected to become vacant and who the likely candidates were to fill them.

Chapter Twelve
CONCLUSION

The Services have long been national leaders in securing advancement opportunities for men and women of different racial and ethnic backgrounds. This report describes how they can sustain that role in the future by institutionalizing a broad definition of diversity that includes both demographic representation and other forms of inclusion to develop military leaders who reflect the troops they lead and embody the qualifications the Services need to maintain readiness and perform their mission.

10 The Commission first recommends that all members of the Armed Services embrace an understanding of diversity that goes beyond the traditional concept of diversity that focuses on eliminating discrimination against members of certain groups and moves toward valuing all kinds of human differences for their contributions to military capability and readiness. Such a concept needs to become a core value that informs the way servicemembers interact with one another and helps motivate the way the organization works. Effectively leading diverse groups—or diversity leadership—requires recognizing the differences among members of a group as assets that can improve performance, neutralizing the tensions that can arise within a diverse working group, and leveraging that diversity in support of the mission.

20 In its second set of recommendations, the Commission urges the Services to recognize the barriers that have prevented women and minorities from advancing through the stages of their careers to positions of leadership. Beginning with the pool of eligible recruits, racial/ethnic minorities are at an increasing disadvantage in meeting military eligibility requirements. The Commission recommends that a network of government agencies work together to improve the educational and physical readiness of American youth. It also recommends the Services improve outreach to underrepresented groups to expand the pool of minority and female officer candidates. In other recommendations, the Commission points to the need to educate and mentor all servicemembers about the promotion process, especially early in their careers, and remove institutional barriers to relating to assignments—both the initial career field assignment and subsequent assignments to key positions. An important step in this direction is to remove the restrictions that prevent women from engaging in direct ground combat.

30 Finally, the Commission offers recommendations to ensure continual progress toward inclusion by creating a centralized office responsible for diversity management and developing policy goals for the Services to achieve, metrics for measuring their achievements, and annual reporting requirements that hold military leaders accountable for progress toward stated goals.

40 This report began by comparing two previous committees dedicated to expanding diversity of the Armed Forces. Both committees pointed to gross inequities of opportunity in the Services and made detailed recommendations for reform, some of which are echoed in this report. In one case—that of the Fahy Committee—the committees not only received clear commitment from the President for its tasks but was also directly involved in implementation of desegregation policies that helped shift the entire culture of the military. In the other case—that of the Gesell Committee—the committees played only an advisory role, and Secretary of Defense ignored the most important recommendations in a setback that stalled progress toward equal opportunity and led to protracted conflicts among servicemembers in posts around the world.

The lesson in this contrast is that the ultimate impact of the recommendations in this report will depend on the unwavering commitment of the President of the United States, the resolute conviction of the Secretary of Defense, and the concerted effort of military leaders at all levels to bring about enduring change. The U.S. military is a learning institution that can indeed change if the highest leaders of the nation provide a clear vision and sustained oversight. In fact, the Armed Forces have led the nation in the struggle to achieve equality. To maintain that leadership, they must evolve again, renew their commitment to equal opportunity for all, and embrace the broader concept of diversity needed to achieve their mission and to move the nation closer to embodying its ideals.

Appendix A THE MILITARY LEADERSHIP DIVERSITY COMMISSION CHARTER



Military Leadership Diversity Commission Charter

Scope:

The commission shall conduct a comprehensive evaluation and assessment of policies that provide opportunities for the promotion and advancement of minority members of the Armed Forces, including minority members who are senior officers.

Deliverables:

Not later than 12 months after the date on which the commission first meets, the commission shall submit to the President and Congress a report on the study. The report shall include the following:

- The findings and conclusions of the commission.
- The recommendations of the commission for improving diversity within the Armed Forces.
- Such other information and recommendations as the commission considers appropriate

Tasks:

- **Develop** a uniform definition of diversity to be used throughout DoD congruent with the core values and vision of DoD for the future workforce.
- **Incorporate** private sector practices successful in cultivating diverse leadership to DoD policy.
- **Assess** the ability of the current organizational structure to ensure effective and accountable diversity management across DoD, including ODMEO and other similar offices within the Military Departments.
- **Explore** options available to improve the substance and implementation of current plans and policies of DoD and the Military Departments.
- **Examine** existing metrics and milestones for evaluating DoD diversity plans (including the plans of the individual Services) and how to facilitate future evaluation and oversight.
- **Evaluate** efforts to develop and maintain diverse leadership at all levels of the Armed Forces.
- **Analyze** successes and failures of efforts to develop and maintain diverse leadership, particularly of flag officers.
- **Determine** the status of prior recommendations made to DoD and Congress concerning diversity initiatives within the Armed Forces.
- **Consider** the benefits of conducting an annual conference focused on diversity attended by DoD civilians, active duty and retired military personnel, and corporate leaders, to include a review of current policy and the annual demographic data from the DEOMI and DMDC.
- **Examine** the possible effect of expanding DoD secondary educational programs to diverse civilians populations, including military academy preparatory schools.
- **Evaluate** the ability of current recruitment and retention practices to attract and maintain a diverse pool of qualified individuals in sufficient numbers in pre-commissioning officer development programs.
- **Assess** the pre-command billet assignments of ethnic-specific officers.
- **Examine** command selection for officers of particular ethnicities.
- **Evaluate** the establishment and maintenance of fair promotion and command opportunities and their effect by gender and ethnicity for officers at O-5 and above.
- **Evaluate** the existence and maintenance of fair promotion, assignment, and command opportunities for ethnic- and gender-specific members of the Armed Forces at the levels of warrant officer, chief warrant officer, company and junior grade, field and mid-grade, and general and flag officer.
- **Measure** the ability of current activities to increase continuation rates for ethnic- and gender-specific members of the Armed Forces.

PREDECISIONAL DRAFT

From Representation to Inclusion: Diversity Leadership for the 21st-Century Military

Appendix B COMMISSION MEMBERS

[Content to be drafted. This is a placeholder.]

Appendix C
RECOMMENDATIONS

Recommendation 1—

DoD shall adopt the following definition: Diversity is all the different characteristics and attributes of individuals that are consistent with Department of Defense core values, integral to overall readiness and mission accomplishment, and reflective of the nation we serve.

Recommendation 2—

10 To enhance readiness and mission accomplishment, effectively leading diverse groups must become a core competency across DoD and the Services. To implement this recommendation,

- a. Leadership training at all levels shall include education in diversity dynamics and training in practices for leading diverse groups effectively.
- b. DoD and the Services should determine the framework (e.g., curriculum, content, methods) for how to inculcate such education and training into leader development, including how to evaluate its effectiveness.

Recommendation 3—

The leadership of DoD and the Services must personally commit to making diversity an institutional priority.

Recommendation 4—

20 DoD and the Services should inculcate into their organizational cultures a broader understanding of the various types of diversity by

- a. Making respect for diversity a core value.
- b. Identifying and rewarding the skills needed to meet the operational challenges of the 21st century.
- c. Using strategic communications plans to communicate their diversity vision and values.

Recommendation 5—

Congress should revise Title 10, Section 113, to

- 30
- a. Require the Office of the Secretary of Defense to develop a standard set of strategic metrics and benchmarks to track progress toward the goal of having a dynamic and sustainable 20–30-year pipeline that yields (1) an officer and enlisted corps that reflects the eligible U.S. population across all Service communities and ranks and (2) a military force that is able to prevail in its wars, prevent and deter conflict, defeat adversaries and succeed in a wide range of contingencies, and preserve and enhance the all-volunteer force.

- b. Add diversity annual reports to the list of topics on which the Secretary of Defense reports to Congress and the President. Similar provisions should be added to Title 14 for Coast Guard reporting and to Title 32 for National Guard reporting.
- c. Require the Secretary of Defense to meet at least annually with Service Secretaries, Service Chiefs, and senior enlisted advisors to drive progress toward diversity management goals.

Recommendation 6—

The shrinking pool of qualified candidates for service in the Armed Forces is a threat to national security. The stakeholders listed below should develop and engage in activities that will expand the pool of qualified candidates.

- a. The President, Congress, and state and local officials should develop, resource, and implement strategies to address current eligibility issues.
- b. DoD and DHS (Coast Guard) should
 - Create and leverage formal partnerships with other stakeholders.
 - Institutionalize and promote citizenship programs for the Services.
 - Require the Services to review and validate their eligibility criteria for military service.
- c. DoD and the Services should focus on early engagement. They should conduct strategic evaluations of the effectiveness of their current K–12 outreach programs and practices and increase resources and support for those that are found to be effective.

Recommendation 7—

DoD and the Services should engage in activities to improve recruiting from the currently available pool of qualified candidates by

- a. Creating, implementing, and evaluating a strategic plan for outreach to, and recruiting from, untapped locations and underrepresented demographic groups.
- b. Creating more accountability for recruiting from underrepresented demographic groups.
- c. Developing a common application for Service ROTC and academy programs
- d. Closely examining the prep school admissions processes and making required changes to ensure that accessions align with the needs of the military.

Recommendation 8—

The Services should ensure that their career development programs and resources enhance servicemembers' knowledge of career choices, including Reserve Component opportunities, to optimize the ability of servicemembers to make informed career choices from accession to retirement.

- a. Mentoring and career counseling efforts shall start prior to the initial career field decision point and continue throughout the servicemember's career.

- b. Mentoring programs shall follow effective practices and employ an active line of communication between protégé and mentor.

Recommendation 9—

DoD and the Services should eliminate the “combat exclusion policies” for women, including the removal of barriers and inconsistencies, to create a level playing field for all qualified servicemembers. The commission recommends a time-phased approach:

- a. Women in career fields/specialties currently open to them should be immediately able to be assigned to any unit that requires that career field/specialty, consistent with the current operational environment.
- 10 • b. DoD and the Services should take deliberate steps in a phased approach to open additional career fields and units involved in “direct ground combat” to qualified women.
- c. DoD and the Services should report to Congress the process and timeline for removing barriers that inhibit women from achieving senior leadership positions.

Recommendation 10—

DoD, the Services, and the Chief, National Guard Bureau, must ensure that there is transparency throughout their promotion systems so that servicemembers may better understand performance expectations and promotion criteria and processes. To do this they

- 20 • a. Must specify the knowledge, skills, abilities, and potential necessary to be an effective flag/general officer or senior noncommissioned officer.
- b. Shall formalize the process and requirements for 3- and 4- star officer selection in DoD instruction 1320.4.
- c. Shall educate and counsel all servicemembers on the importance of, and their responsibility for, a complete promotion board packet.

Recommendation 11—

The Services shall ensure that promotion board precepts provide guidance regarding Service-directed special assignments outside normal career paths and/or fields. As appropriate, senior raters’ evaluations shall acknowledge when a servicemember has deviated from the due-course path at the specific request of his/her leadership.

30 **Recommendation 12—**

Where appropriate, DACOWITS should expand its current focus on retention to include an explanation of the gender gap in retention. As part of this renewed focus, DACOWITS should examine the effects of retention programs, such as the sabbatical programs currently offered by the Navy and the Coast Guard as well as any other innovative Service-specific approaches to retention. Findings and recommendations from this research should be presented to the Secretary of Defense.

Recommendation 13—

DoD and the Services must track regional and cultural expertise and relevant Reserve Component civilian expertise and continue to track language expertise upon military accession and throughout servicemembers' careers in order to better manage personnel with mission-critical skill sets.

Recommendation 14—

To promote structural diversity, total force integration, and overall retention,

- 10 • a. DoD must improve the personnel and finance systems affecting transition between Active and Reserve Components and internal Reserve Component transition protocols.
- b. The Assistant Secretary of Defense for Reserve Affairs and the Service Chiefs must assess how Reserve Component members can more effectively both gain operational experience and fulfill joint requirements within the constraints of their dual military/civilian lives and take action as appropriate.

Recommendation 15—

The Office of the Secretary of Defense organizational structure must be aligned to ensure a sustained focus on diversity and diversity initiatives and should include establishment of the position of a Chief Diversity Officer who reports directly to the Secretary of Defense.

- 20 • The existing "Research and Analysis" office should be directed and resourced to support the Chief Diversity Officer.
- Chief, National Guard Bureau, must establish and resource organizational structures that support DoD diversity initiatives and reinforce ongoing National Guard diversity leadership efforts.

Recommendation 16—

DoD and the Services must resource and institute clear, consistent, and robust diversity management policies with emphasis on roles, responsibilities, authorities, and accountability.

- 30 • a. DoD and the Services shall implement diversity strategic plans that address all stages of a servicemember's life cycle. Each strategic plan shall include
 - a diversity mission statement that prioritizes equity and inclusion and provides a purpose that is actionable and measurable
 - a Concept of Operations to advance implementation.
- b. DoD must revise (if appropriate), reissue, and enforce compliance with its existing diversity management and equal opportunity policies to
 - Define a standard set of strategic metrics and benchmarks that enables the Secretary of Defense to measure progress towards the goals identified in the strategic plan, including the creation of an inclusive environment.
 - Establish standards that allow for the collection of data needed to generate these metrics and the analysis needed to inform policy action.

PREDECISIONAL DRAFT

- Provide oversight of, and support for, the Services’ respective diversity initiatives and metrics to ensure that, at a minimum, they align with the end state established by DoD.

Recommendation 17—

DoD must and DHS (Coast Guard) should institute a system of “accountability reviews” that is driven by the Secretaries of Defense and Homeland Security (Coast Guard).

- a. The Secretary of Defense shall meet at least annually with Service Secretaries, Service Chiefs, senior enlisted leaders and Chief, National Guard Bureau, to drive progress toward the diversity management goals identified in the strategic plans. The Coast Guard should be subject to a similar review.
 - b. The Secretary of Defense and Secretary of Homeland Security should send an annual report to Congress and the President on the progress made toward diversity management goals in the Services, including the Reserve Component; the report should include the barrier analyses described in Recommendation 18.
 - c. The National Guard Bureau should report annually to Congress and DoD on the status of diversity in each state, territory, and the District of Columbia for all ranks of the Army and Air National Guard. This report shall show how reflective the Army and Air National Guard are of the eligible pool in their particular state, territory, or the District of Columbia.
- Based on the report to Congress, the National Guard Bureau shall produce a “dashboard” of diversity metrics to be used by the Army and Air National Guard. This dashboard shall show comparisons across states, territories, and the District of Columbia and highlight best practices.

Recommendation 18—

As part of the accountability reviews, the Services, in conjunction with the Chief Diversity Officer (established in Recommendation 15), should conduct annual “barrier analyses” to review demographic diversity patterns across the military life cycle, starting with accessions.

- a. To ensure comparability across Services, DoD shall establish a universal data collection system, and the analyses of the data should be based on common definitions of demographic groups, a common methodology, and a common reporting structure.
- • b. The annual analyses should include
 - accession demographics
 - retention, command selection, and promotion rates by race, ethnicity, and gender
 - analysis of assignment patterns by race, ethnicity, and gender
 - analysis of attitudinal survey data by race, ethnicity, and gender
 - identification of persistent, group-specific deviations from overall averages and plans to investigate underlying causes
 - summaries of progress made on previous actions.

Recommendation 19—

DoD must and DHS (Coast Guard) should institute mechanisms for accountability and internal and external monitoring for both the Active and Reserve Components.

- a. The Services must embed diversity leadership in performance assessments throughout careers.
- b. DoD must and DHS (Coast Guard) should establish diversity leadership as a criterion for nomination and appointment to senior enlisted leadership positions and flag/general officers, including 3- and 4-star positions and Service Chief.
 - The Senate Armed Services Committee should include this criterion in its confirmation questionnaire.
- c. The Secretary of Defense must transfer the functions of the former Defense Equal Opportunity Council to a minimum of biannual meetings of DoD's leadership, the existing Deputy's Advisory Working Group).
- d. The Secretary of Defense must expand the DACOWITS charter, where appropriate, to encompass diversity as a whole.

Recommendation 20—

In congruence with Recommendation 5, Congress should revise Title 10, Section 113, to require the Secretary of Defense to report annually an assessment of the available pool of qualified minority and female candidates for the 3- and 4-star flag/general officer positions.

- The Secretary of Defense must ensure that all qualified candidates (including minorities and women) have been considered for the nomination of every 3- and 4-star position. If there were no qualified minority and/or female candidates, then a statement of explanation should be made in the package submitted to the Senate for the confirmation hearings.

GLOSSARY

[Content to be drafted. This is a placeholder.]

REFERENCES

- Allen, T. D., Eby, L. T., & Lentz, E. (2006). Mentorship behaviors and mentorship quality associated with formal mentoring programs: Closing the gap between research and practice. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91, 567–578.
- Allen, T. D., Eby, L. T., Poteet, M. L., Lentz, E., & Lima, L. (2004). Career benefits associated with mentoring for protégés: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89, 127–136.
- Anand, R. (2010, April). Remarks to the Military Leadership Diversity Commission, Fishkill, NY.
- Armor, D. J. (1996). Race and gender in the U.S. military. *Armed Forces and Society*, 23, 7–28.
- 10 Armor, D. J., & Roll, C. R., Jr. (1994). Military manpower quality: Past, present, and future. In B. F. Green & A. S. Mavor (Eds.), *Modeling cost and performance for military enlistment: Report of a workshop* (pp. 13–34). Washington, DC: National Academies Press.
- Asch, B. J., Buck, C., Klerman, J. A., Kleykamp, M., & Loughran, D. S. (2009). *Military enlistment of Hispanic youth: Obstacles and opportunities* [MG-773-OSD]. Santa Monica, CA: RAND Corporation.
- Becton, J. W. Jr., et al. (2003, February 19). Amicus curiae brief in support of respondent, *Gratz v Bollinger*, 123 S. Ct. 2411, 539 U.S. 244, June 23, 2003, and *Gutter v Bollinger*, 123 S. Ct. 2325, 539 U.S. 306, June 23, 2003.
- 20 Center for Human Resource Research. (2005). *NLSY97 user's guide*. Columbus, OH: Center for Human Resource Research, 2005
- Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. (2006). *Behavioral risk factor surveillance system survey data*. Atlanta, GA: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention.
- Chief of Naval Operations. (2008). *Diversity policy*.
- Conway, J. T. (2010, March). Remarks to the Military Leadership Diversity Commission, Annapolis, MD.
- Cox, T. (1994). *Cultural diversity in organizations: Theory, research, and practice*. San Francisco, CA: Berrett-Koehler.
- 30 Day, J. C. (undated). *National population projections*. Retrieved December 16, 2010, from <http://www.census.gov/population/www/pop-profile/natproj.html>
- Deak, M., Helba, C., Rockwell, D., Helmick, J., & Hoover, E. C. (2002). *Tabulations of responses from the 2000 Military Exit Survey*. Rockville, MD: Westat Inc.
- Defense Business Board Task Group on Increasing Diversity in DoD's Flag and Senior Executive Ranks. (2009, March 1). *Increasing diversity in the Defense Department's flag ranks and senior executive service*.

Defense Department Advisory Committee on Women in the Services. (undated-a). Homepage. Retrieved November 30, 2010, from <http://dacowits.defense.gov/>

Defense Department Advisory Committee on Women in the Services. (undated-b). *About DACOWITS*. Retrieved November 30, 2010, from http://dacowits.defense.gov/tableabout_subpage.html

Defense Department Advisory Committee on Women in the Services. (2009). *2009 report*. Washington, DC: Defense Advisory Committee on Women in the Services.

Defense Equal Opportunity Management Institute, Directorate of Research. (2008, October 14). *DEOMI Organizational Climate Survey (DEOCS)*. Patrick Air Force Base, FL: Defense Equal Opportunity Management Institute.

Defense Manpower Data Center. (2009). *November 2008 Status of Forces Survey of Active Duty Members: Administration, datasets, and codebook* [Report No. 2008-033]. Arlington, VA: Defense Manpower Data Center.

Defense Manpower Data Center. (2010a). *2009 Workplace and Equal Opportunity Survey of Active Duty Members* [WEOA2009].

Defense Manpower Data Center. (2010b). Active duty transition files [Dataset].

Defense Manpower Data Center. (2010c). *Status of Forces Survey of Active Duty Members: Attitudes Toward Promotions*.

Dexter, B. (2010). *The chief diversity officer today: Inclusion gets down to business*. Heidrick & Struggles International.

Dobbin, F. (2010, June). Remarks to the Military Leadership Diversity Commission, McLean, VA.

ExpectMore.gov. (2006). *Detailed information on the Junior Reserve Officer Training Corps Assessment*. Retrieved October 10, 2010, from <http://www.whitehouse.gov/omb/expectmore/detail/10003233.2006.html>

Finkelstein, L. M., & Poteet, M. L. (2007). Best practices in workplace formal mentoring programs. In T. D. Allen & L. T. Eby (Eds.), *The Blackwell handbook of mentoring: A multiple perspectives approach* (pp. 345–367). Malden, MA: Blackwell Publishing.

Gilroy, C. (2009, March 3). *Recruiting, retention, and end strength overview: Prepared statement of Dr. Curtis Gilroy, Director for Accessions Policy, Office of the Under Secretary of Defense for Personnel and Readiness before the House Armed Services Subcommittee*.

Gilroy, C., Eitelberg, M., Enns, J., Hosek, S., Kilburn, R., Laurence, J., Mehay, S., Tiemeyer, P., & Verdugo, N. (1999, August). *Career progression of minority and women officers*. Washington, DC: Office of the Under Secretary of Defense (Personnel and Readiness).

Groner, J. (2003). In “Grutter v. Bollinger” amicus avalanche, one brief stood out. *Legal Times*. Grutter v. Bollinger, 539 U.S. 306, 331 (2003).

Hardison, C., Sims, C., & Wong, A. (2010). The Air Force officer qualifying test: Validity, fairness, and bias [TR-744-PAF]. Santa Monica, CA: RAND Corporation.

- Harrell, M. C., Castaneda, L. W., Schirmer, P., Hallmark, B. W., Kavanagh, J., Gershwin, D., & Steinberg, P. (2007). *Assessing the assignment policy for Army women* [MG-590-1-OSD]. Santa Monica, CA: RAND Corporation.
- Harrell, M. C., & Miller, L. L. (1997). *New opportunities for military women: Effects upon readiness, cohesion, and morale* [MR-896-OSD]. Santa Monica, CA: RAND Corporation.
- Haughton, Jr., C. (2010, March). Remarks to the Military Leadership Diversity Commission, Annapolis, MD.
- Haygood, A., & Morris, M. (2009, November). *Air Force accessions*. Briefing presented to the Military Leadership Diversity Commission, Melbourne, FL. Retrieved January 18, 2010, from <http://mldc.whs.mil/download%5Cdocuments%5Cmeetings%5C200911%5CAFI.pdf>
- Holvino, E., Ferdman, B. M., & Merrill-Sands, D. (2004). Creating and sustaining diversity and inclusion in organizations: Strategies and approaches. In M.S. Stockdale & F.J. Crosby (Eds.), *The psychology and management of workplace diversity* (245–276). Malden, MA: Blackwell.
- Hosek, S. D., Tiemeyer, P., Kilburn, M. R., Strong, D. A., Ducksworth, S., & Ray, R. (2001). *Minority and gender differences in officer career progression* [MR-1184-OSD]. Santa Monica, CA: RAND Corporation.
- House Armed Services Committee approves senior military officer diversity commission; increases Junior Reserve Officer Training Corps units* [Press Release]. (2008, May 15).
- Jackson, S. E., Joshi, A., & Erhardt, N. (2003). Recent research on team and organizational diversity: SWOT analysis and implications. *Journal of Management*, 29, 801–830.
- Johnson, J., Ham, C., et al. (2010, November 30). *Report of the comprehensive review of the issues associated with a repeal of “Don’t Ask, Don’t Tell.”*
- Kalev, A., Dobbin, F., & Kelly, E. (2006). Best practices or best guesses? Assessing the efficacy of corporate affirmative action and diversity policies. *American Sociological Review*, 71, 589–617.
- Karabel, J. (2003, March 28). Race and national security. *Christian Science Monitor*.
- Kirby, S. N., Harrell, M. C., & Sloan, J. (2000). Why don’t minorities join special operations forces? *Armed Forces and Society*, 26, 523–545.
- Kraus, A., Hodari, A. K., Riche, M. F., & Wenger, J. W. (2007, November). *The impact of diversity on Air Force mission performance: Analysis of deployed servicemembers’ perceptions of diversity/capability relationship* [Research Memorandum D0015452.A2]. Alexandria, VA: CNA.
- Kraus, A., Wenger, J., Houck, L., & Gregory, D. (2004). *College recruits in the enlisted Navy: Navy outcomes and civilian opportunities*. Alexandria, VA: CNA.
- Lim, N., Cho, M., & Curry, K. (2008). *Planning for diversity: Options and recommendations for DoD leaders* [MG-743-OSD]. Santa Monica, CA: RAND Corporation.

- Lim, N., Marquis, J., Hall, C., Schulker, D., & Zhuo, X. (2009). *Officer classification and the future of diversity among senior military leaders: A case study of the Army ROTC* [TR-731-OSD]. Santa Monica, CA: RAND Corporation.
- Malstrom, F. (2009, June). Before there was a USAFA prep school. *Checkpoints*, 30–33.
- McHenry, J. J., Hough, L. M., Toquam, J. L., Hanson, M. A., & Ashworth, S. (1990). Project A validity results: The relationship between predictor and criterion domains. *Personnel Psychology*, 43, pp. 335–354.
- McSally, M. (2007). Women in combat: Is the current policy obsolete? *Duke Journal of Gender Law & Policy*, 14, 1011–1059.
- 10 McSally, M. (2010, September). Remarks to the Military Leadership Diversity Commission, Baltimore, MD.
- Mershon, S., & Schlossman, S. (1998). *Foxholes and color lines: Desegregating the U.S. armed forces*. Baltimore and London: The Johns Hopkins University Press.
- Military Leadership Diversity Commission. (2009, December). *What is the relationship between demographic diversity and cognitive diversity?* [Issue Paper #4]. Arlington, VA: Military Leadership Diversity Commission.
- Military Leadership Diversity Commission. (2010, March). *Services' processes for developing definitions of diversity and diversity policy statements* [Issue Paper #20]. Arlington, VA: Military Leadership Diversity Commission.
- 20 Military Leadership Diversity Commission. (2010, April). *Effective diversity leadership: Definition and practices* [Issue Paper #29]. Arlington, VA: Military Leadership Diversity Commission.
- Mor Barak, M., Cherin, D. A., & Berkman, S. (1998). Organizational and personal dimensions in diversity climate: Ethnic and gender differences in employee perceptions. *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 34(1), 82–104.
- Mullen, M. (2009, September). Remarks to the Military Leadership Diversity Commission, Arlington, VA.
- National Center for Education Statistics. (2008). Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System [Dataset].
- 30 National Defense Authorization Act, Pub. L. 109-163, 119 Stat. 3456, January 6, 2006, codified at 10 U.S.C. §504 (2009).
- National Defense Research Institute. (2010). *Sexual orientation and U.S. military personnel policy: An update of RAND's 1993 study*. Santa Monica, CA: RAND Corporation.
- O'Donnell, M. (2010, September). Remarks to the Military Leadership Diversity Commission, Baltimore, MD.
- Office of the Under Secretary of Defense, Personnel and Readiness. (FY2002–FY2008). *Population representation in the military services*.

- Oken, C. & Asch, B. J. (1997). *Encouraging recruiter achievement: A recent history of military recruiter incentive programs* [MR-845-OSD]. Santa Monica, CA: RAND Corporation.
- Peck, T. R. (2010, March 6.) *Women serving in Navy continue reaching milestones* [NNS100306-17]. Retrieved October 11, 2010 from http://www.navy.mil/search/display.asp?story_id=51758
- Peterson, F. E., & Phelps, J. A. (1998). *Into the tiger's jaw: America's first black marine aviator*. Novato, CA: Presidio Press.
- Powell, C. (2010, March). Remarks to the Military Leadership Diversity Commission, Annapolis, MD.
- 10 Ree, M. J., & Earles, J. A. (1992). Intelligence is the best predictor of job performance. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 1, pp. 86–89.
- Riche, M. F., Kraus, A., & Hodari, A. K. (2007). *The Air Force diversity climate: Implications for successful total force integration*. Alexandria, VA: CNA.
- Roughead, G. (2010, June). Remarks to the Military Leadership Diversity Commission, McLean, VA.
- Schirmer, P., Thie, H. J., Harrell, M., & Tseng, M. S. (2006). *Challenging time in DOPMA: Flexible and contemporary military officer management* [MG-451-OSD]. Santa Monica, CA: RAND Corporation.
- Segal, D. R., & Segal, M. W. (2004). America's military population. *Population Bulletin*, 59(4).
- 20 Sodexo. (2010, September 24). Sodexo launches diversity and inclusion advisory board to continue progress for minorities, women. Retrieved November 30, 2010, from <http://www.sodexousa.com/usen/newsroom/press/diversityandinclusionadvisoryboard.asp>
- Stock, M. (2010, April 21). Personal communication.
- Thirtle, M. R. (2001). *Educational benefits and Officer-commissioning opportunities available to U.S. military servicemembers* [MR-981-OSD]. Santa Monica, CA.: RAND Corporation.
- Thomas, D. A., & Ely, R. J. (1996, September–October). Making differences matter: A new paradigm for managing diversity. *Harvard Business Review*, 79–90
- Tsui, A. S., & Gutek, B. A. (1999) *Demographic differences in organizations*. Lanham, MD: Lexington.
- 30 Tsui, A. S., Egan, T. D., & O'Reilly, C. A. (1992). Being different: Relational demography and organizational attachment. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 37, 549–579.
- U.S. Air Force. (2009). *Officer opportunities: Commissioned programs*. Retrieved March 17, 2010, from <http://www.airforce.com/opportunities/officer/education/>
- U.S. Army. (2007). *Three ways to become an officer*. Retrieved March 17, 2010, from <http://www.usarmy.com/845/3-ways-to-become-us-army-officer/>

- U.S. Census Bureau. (undated). *2009 national population projections (supplemental)*. Retrieved December 20, 2010, from <http://www.census.gov/population/www/projections/2009projections.html>
- U.S. Census Bureau. (1973–2008, March). Current population survey [Dataset].
- U.S. Census Bureau. (2007). American community survey [Dataset].
- U.S. Coast Guard. (n.d.). *Women & the U.S. Coast Guard: Moments in history*. Retrieved January 21, 2010, from <http://www.uscg.mil/History/uscghist/WomenChronology.asp>
- U.S. Department of Defense. (undated). *DoD 101: An introductory overview of the Department of Defense*. Retrieved October 4, 2010, from <http://www.defense.gov/pubs/dod101/dod101.html>
- U.S. Department of Defense, Undersecretary of Defense, Personnel and Readiness. (2006, June 23). Improving diversity through realignment of the Equal Opportunity Office [Memorandum].
- U.S. Department of Defense. (1987, May 21). *The DoD Civilian Equal Employment Opportunity (EEO) Program* [DoDD 1440.1]. Certified current as of November 21, 2003.
- U.S. Department of Defense. (2010, February). *Quadrennial Defense Review report*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Defense.
- U.S. Equal Opportunity Employment Commission. (undated). *Overview*. Retrieved October 5, 2010, from <http://www.eeoc.gov/eeoc/index.cfm>
- U.S. General Accounting Office. (1995, November). *Military equal opportunity: Certain trends in racial and gender data may warrant further analysis* [GAO/NSIAD-96-17]. Washington, DC: U.S. General Accounting Office.
- U.S. Marine Corps. (2010). *U.S. Naval Academy*. Retrieved March 17, 2010, from http://officer.marines.com/marine/making_marine_officers/commissioning_programs/us_naval_academy
- Verdugo, N. B. (2010, June 4). Personal communication.
- The White House. (1948, July 26). *Establishing the President's Committee on Equality of Treatment and Opportunity in the Armed Services* [Executive Order 9981]. Washington, DC.
- Witte, B. (2009, November 20). Lawmakers send few minorities to academies. Retrieved April 23, 2010, from <http://www.msnbc.msn.com/id/34066952/>